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The Nation

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 3, 1915.

Summary of the News

In our editorial columns we comment on the German reply to the American note of May 13 regarding the Lusitania and other episodes of German subaqueous warfare. The cabled text of the German reply, bearing date of May 29, was published in Monday's papers and the official translation given out by the State Department on the following day. The note, courteous in form, but evasive in substance, requests a preliminary investigation of the facts of the case, reasserting the German contention that the Lusitania was a British auxiliary cruiser armed with guns, and that she carried a cargo of munitions in contravention of American law for passenger ships. The Imperial German Government also takes the opportunity to renew the suggestion that the United States should purchase the rights of its citizens on the high seas by inducing England to abandon the embargo on food and raw material destined for Germany. Comment by the press of this country is almost unanimous in condemning the note as utterly unsatisfactory. By the German press its tone is approved in unqualified terms. The reply of the United States Government is expected to go forward before the end of the week.

While German diplomatists were preparing the note to the United States, German submarines continued to be busily engaged on their work of destruction, the past week having been a singularly fruitful one for this form of enterprise. Since we wrote last week twelve vessels have been torpedoed, in most cases without preliminary warning. The catholicity of German attentions is illustrated by the fact that seven of these were British ships and five belonged to neutral nations: two Danish, one Swedish, one Portuguese, and one American. In addition, several unsuccessful attacks have been reported, the most noteworthy being that on the Megantic, a White Star liner bound from Liverpool to Montreal carrying a large number of passengers. The Megantic reported by wireless that she was chased by a submarine off the south coast of Ireland on May 30, but outdistanced the attacking craft.

The torpedoing of the American vessel, the Nebraskan, on May 26, raises yet another issue between the Governments of the United States and Germany. The Nebraskan was returning from Liverpool to Delaware Breakwater in ballast, when she was struck without warning. The vessel did not sink and was able to return to port under her own steam. Some doubt existed at first as to whether the explosion was caused by a torpedo or a mine, but the evidence that has since come to hand would appear to point strongly to the fact that the damage was caused by a torpedo. An investigation, a summary of which was given out on May 29, has been completed by naval experts of the United States Embassy in London.

Formal announcement was made by the

State Department on Monday that the German Government had officially acknowledged that the American oil-tank steamer Guildlight, which was torpedoed in the neighborhood of the Scilly Isles on May 1, was the victim of a German submarine. Another interesting announcement from the State Department was on May 29, when Secretary Bryan made public a statement received by Ambassador Gerard from the German Foreign Office urging that American shipping circles again be warned against "traversing the area of maritime warfare incautiously."

On the entry of Italy into the war a formal proclamation of the neutrality of the United States was issued by the President, bearing date of May 24. On May 25 the Italian Ambassador to the United States, Count V. Macchi di Cellere, made public the text of a note received from Signor Sonnino for presentation to the State Department, setting forth the difficulties between Italy and Austria-Hungary which led to the former's declaration of war. Up to the time of writing no considerable opposition has been offered to Italian arms. The invasion of Austria along the entire frontier from Switzerland to the Adriatic was well under way by May 25. Announcement of the occupation of Monte Baldo was contained in the papers of May 29 and of the crossing of the Isonzo in those of May 30. The official reports of that day spoke of artillery duels between the Austrian and Italian forts in the high mountains of the Trentino-Tyrol frontier, in which, it was asserted, the Italian guns were proving their superiority. A blockade of the Austro-Hungarian and the Albanian coasts was announced by the Italian Government on May 26.

Apart altogether from the hazards of war and of German submarines, the week has been a fatal one for shipping. On May 26 the Holland-America liner Ryndam was rammed off Nantucket Shoals by the fruit steamship Joseph J. Cuneco. All the passengers were taken off in safety, the battleship South Carolina assisting in the rescue, and the Ryndam was brought into dock at Hoboken. On May 27 the Princess Irene, a new liner of the Canadian Pacific Railway Company, which had been taken over by the British Admiralty, while lying in Sheerness Harbor, presumably undergoing repairs, was blown to pieces by an explosion. The loss of life was estimated at more than 300. No official explanation of the disaster, which recalls that to the Bulwark, which was blown up on November 26, has as yet been given. On May 28 the Champagne, of the French Transatlantic Line, ran ashore near St. Nazaire, and was subsequently reported to have broken up. The passengers were all removed in safety. In the course of the naval operations in the Dardanelles the British battleships Triumph and Majestic were torpedoed on two successive days of last week. The loss of life in both cases was slight.

Anxiety concerning the Mexican situation has been added to that already felt in Washington in regard to the issue between the United States and Germany. The continuance of anarchical conditions, the threat of famine in Mexico City, and the interruption

by military chiefs of supplies of food sent by the American Red Cross to the starving inhabitants have combined to produce an intolerable situation. President Wilson was expected to issue a statement dealing with the whole question yesterday. We shall reserve comment on the matter until next week.

As a result of the indifferent showing made by the submarines attached to the Atlantic fleet during the recent naval manœuvres, Secretary Daniels announced on May 27 that a thorough investigation of the matter would be conducted by the Navy Department.

The Court of Customs Appeal decided on May 26 that the law gave a 5 per cent. discount from the tariff rates on all goods imported in American bottoms or in ships of countries having commercial treaties with the United States covering reciprocal treatment. The decision, if it is upheld by the Supreme Court, will have the effect of still further reducing receipts from customs under the Underwood-Simmons act.

The completion of the new British Ministry was announced on May 30, when a list of appointments to Under-Secretaryships and minor offices was published. Several Unionists and one Labor member are included in the new appointments. The appointment of Admiral Sir Henry B. Jackson as First Sea Lord of the Admiralty, in succession to Lord Fisher, was announced on May 27. The personnel of the Central Board of Control to deal with the problem of drink in the areas in which camps are situated or munitions manufactured was announced on May 26.

If the late British Ministry chastised the press with whips the new one is apparently prepared to apply scorpions. Announcement was made on May 29 that in order to prevent "disclosure of information or publication of statements in the press which might assist the enemy or interfere with the successful prosecution of the war," the law officers of the Crown would be charged with the duty of "instituting proceedings in the event of infraction of the Defence of the Realm regulations by publication of prohibited matter." A beginning was made on Monday, when suit was commenced against the Times on the charge of having published in a letter entitled "The Need for Conscription" information calculated to assist the enemy.

The President of Portugal, Senhor Manuel de Arriaga, having announced his resignation to the President of Congress on May 28, Senhor Theophile Braga was on the following day, by a vote of 98 to 1, elected by the National Assembly to succeed him. Senhor Braga was Provisional President of Portugal following the revolution which resulted in the abdication of King Manuel.

The deaths of the week include: Chief Justice Thomas Jefferson Brown, May 26; Bucknam Pasha, May 27; William W. Worden, Samuel Dickson, May 28; John G. McCullough, James W. Pattison, Superior Court Judge John E. Humphries, May 29; Clarence Walker Seamans, May 30; Earl of Jersey, John W. Alexander, May 31.

The Week

If it is true that Germany is beginning to hate us more than she hates England, that spirit should be directed against the people of these United States rather than against the Government. Of Mr. Wilson the Kaiser has little reason to complain, and still less of Mr. Bryan. At least the thought occurs, what would the situation be if instead of Mr. Bryan in the State Department we had the late John Hay? Selections from Hay's unpublished letters now presented by William Roscoe Thayer in *Harper's Magazine* will make unpleasant reading in Berlin. Regarding affairs in China after the Boxer rebellion, the Secretary of State is outspoken when it comes to Germany. To a friend he writes:

The success we had in stopping that first preposterous German movement when the whole world seemed likely to join in it, when the entire press of the Continent and a great many on this side were in favor of it, will always be a source of gratification. The moment we acted, the rest of the world paused, and finally came over to our ground; and the German Government, which is generally brutal but seldom silly, recovered its senses, climbed down off its perch, and presented another proposition which was exactly in line with our position. [October 16, 1900.]

And some time later to Henry Adams:

But it will come. At least we are spared the infamy of an alliance with Germany. I would rather, I think, be the dupe of China than the chum of the Kaiser. Have you noticed how the world will take anything nowadays from a German? Bülow said yesterday in substance: "We have demanded of China everything we can think of. If we think of anything else we will demand that, and be damned to you"—and not a man in the world kicks.

That "libraries are not made—they grow"—is an aphorism that must seem especially melancholy just now in Louvain. Of all the University's magnificent treasures, it appears that only a small part of the archives—its official correspondence from 1629 to 1635—escaped destruction, having been borrowed by one of the professors. Two hundred and thirty thousand volumes were burned, some of them gifts of the years 1627 and 1635. The movement initiated by the Rylands Library of Manchester for the donation of all the duplicates in its possession is already imitated in England, and might well be here. To many collections such a weeding-out would be a benefit rather than a loss, while it would express sympathy helpfully, and, in the case of our universities, the truest intellectual fraternalism. While public libraries may be so bound by rules that they cannot

give freely, private owners can part even with rarities.

The lessons being drawn from the naval war game just concluded off the New England coast show that we are not lacking in at least one kind of preparedness. Ever so many people were "prepared" to find that the war game taught the need of a much larger navy, all around. The enemy's fleet won because of its superiority in battle cruisers. The defending fleet was beaten because it did not have enough submarines. It seems rather odd that the victors should have won and the defeated should have lost for different reasons, but so it goes with the lessons drawn from war games. The ordinary logician would argue that if you have enough battle cruisers to beat the enemy, you need no submarines, or if you have a great many submarines you need not go out to meet the enemy's battle cruisers; and that therefore before you decide which you want there should be worked out a theory of naval warfare suited to the needs of the country. England and Germany have built ships with definite aims in view. The big-navy argument at present in vogue here is that we must build against every contingency and everybody.

From the showing made by our own submarines it is possible to obtain a fair idea of the price Germany has paid for such successes as she has scored in her undersea warfare. Conceding that the Germans must have shown their usual efficiency in developing the possibilities of the submarine, it does not follow that the German boats are vastly superior to our own because of the hits they have scored. The more logical conclusion is that the Germans have paid heavily for their victories, and that if we had a record of the number of German submarines lost we should find that they have had to reckon on the many weaknesses and hazards that beset the underwater boat. Two things about the German submarines have impressed the imagination—their long cruising radius and their sudden striking power. In respect to the first factor, our own submarines, by their long trip from the Florida coast, have shown no inferiority. In respect to the second factor, we simply do not know how many failures the Germans have recorded for every success. Recent reports from English sources have estimated the number of German submarines lost at seventeen, and there is nothing inherently improbable in that number. The comparative ease with which the submarine may be de-

stroyed by ramming shows that the structural frailties of the boat have not been eliminated even by the Kaiser's expert technicians; and we have no reason to suppose that other problems which beset the submarines of other navies have all been solved by the Germans.

There is almost malicious satire in the opinion of the Court of Customs Appeals that Congress knew its own mind and "the whole intent of the statute" when it approved the clause in the Underwood Act for a 5 per cent. discount on imports in American ships, provided no treaties were thereby impaired. If ever Congress took a reckless chance with what it thought an equivocally worded law, it was here. The House, anxious to accomplish something for American shipping, had first read into the bill a sub-section unconditionally offering the 5 per cent. discount to vessels under our registry. The Senate, cognizant that such a discrimination against other countries would involve us in international complications, and alarmed by a number of domestic protests against its unfairness, added a stipulation that nothing in the sub-section should be construed so as to abrogate any of our treaty agreements. Congress then adopted the whole thing, confident that the stipulation would nullify the original provision to which it was attached. There is, however, another way of interpreting it. The stipulation does not abrogate the discount, but extends it to the vessels of all foreign countries having trade agreements with us. If the Supreme Court upholds this view, the United States will thus be punished for the cowardice and double-dealing of Congress by a wholesale reduction of the tariff by 5 per cent., throwing many schedules askew. It is an extraordinary example of parliamentary muddling.

The importance of the testimony of Porto Rican labor leaders before the Commission on Industrial Relations lies in the definiteness of their proposals. The measures urged for a people's bank to provide rural credits, for the expansion of school activities, and for the organization of a Department of Agriculture and Labor, have been increasingly needed. Such subjects may be treated in the new organic act which Congress is certain to consider next session. Porto Rico has had a tradition and a working system of peonage; and while the insular Board of Agricultural Commissioners has tried to develop intensive farming and to multiply small proprietary interests, economic conditions have not been favorable. The rapid

growth of interest in sugar has been accompanied by speculation, and this, with the money stringency of recent years, has ruined many small properties. Twelve to twenty per cent. is still charged for short-time loans. All this reacts upon urban industry, and one of the witnesses complained that conditions were "generally deplorable," and only "somewhat improved" over those of the Spanish occupation.

The figures for unemployment in fifteen scattered cities of the United States, as ascertained by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, present an interesting study in the distribution of industrial depression. That Duluth should head the list with 20.3 per cent. out of work is comprehensible, for to Duluth in winter flock many unemployed lumbermen and harvesters. The reason why Bridgeport, Conn., shows only 4.3 per cent. unemployed, while Boston had 10.2 per cent., is probably that the former city has been busy making munitions of war. But why should there be but 11.1 per cent. out of work in Pittsburgh, and nearly 14 per cent. in Minneapolis? Why should Toledo have nearly twice as many unemployed as Wilkes-Barre? The fluctuations suggest anew the desirability of a Federal and State system of labor exchanges to equalize, as far as possible, the burden of unemployment, and to adjust supply to the pressure of demand. They show even more clearly the rôle that part-time work may play in lessening downright unemployment. In Kansas City, for example, where there were 8.8 per cent. part-time employed, there were 12.5 per cent. unemployed; while in Cleveland, where there were 12.3 per cent. part-time employed, there were only 9.4 per cent. unemployed. The policy of short-time in depression rules especially in industries employing skilled men or paying by piece-work, but it could often be extended to advantage.

Two remedies are offered for the sorry situation of the Alaskan Indians as regards depopulation threatened by the white man's vices and avarice. Archdeacon Stuck and other missionaries would stop the illegal traffic in liquor, and create a constabulary force like the Canadian Mounted Police to enforce order. The Bureau of Education for the Natives of Alaska now comes forward with the statement that provision for direct medical and sanitary relief of the Indians and Eskimos "is imperative." The masses of the natives live far from any doctor, and depend upon Government physicians and teachers. "The use of part of the educational

appropriation for medical relief is an emergency measure dictated by the absolute necessity for action," states the Bureau. The Bureau has no funds for erecting hospitals, though "without hospitals for the segregation and proper care of natives afflicted with tuberculosis, trachoma, and other communicable diseases, it is impossible to reduce their prevalence." An appropriation of but \$125,000 would suffice to establish a medical service in Alaska with an efficient organization, and would help end a state of affairs as disgraceful to our rich nation as many other pages in the history of its treatment of Indian wards.

Many domestic events are as but a summer's cloud to us, now that all attention is centred on Europe; but the settlement of the prolonged Ohio coal strike is an achievement for Federal and State mediation that deserves notice. The complexity of the problem grew out of facts both geological and economic. The coal veins in easternmost Ohio are a mere continuation of those in western Pennsylvania, yet there was a wide variation in the wage-scales. The question whether the coal mined should be paid for on the basis of the entire output, or on that of the screened coal alone, was another bone of contention. Conservationists naturally joined the miners in demanding that the pay be for the whole output, as otherwise the workers would leave fine coal in the shafts; and State legislation on the subject was followed by disputes as to its Constitutionality. The result was, on the whole, a victory for the conservationists and the miners, as the pay is to be on the "run-of-mine" scale, and is to be 47 cents a ton, whereas there were operators who declared that 44 cents would ruin them. The scale is a flat one for the whole State, and the wonder is why some differentiation was not made for varying conditions.

It is not the initial gift of \$250,000 to the Engineering Foundation which guarantees its future, but the fact that it represents the coöperation of the various national, civil, electrical, mining, and mechanical engineering bodies. Supported by their 30,000 members, many of them heads of great engineering corporations, it can scarcely lack funds to meet the applications of really worthy investigators. The announcement of the organization of the Foundation is accompanied by a statement that many such applications have already been received. American industrialists have lately been inclined to repel the charge that our country gives less support to workers in applied science than Eu-

rope. They have pointed not merely to our universities, where men like Babcock in agriculture and Pupin in electro-mechanics have carried out important studies, and to our Federal and State bureaus, but to special laboratories maintained in connection with great industries, as by the General Electric Company, the steel companies, and the textile mills, in evidence of the contention that we really surpass other nations. The Engineering Foundation should give a new impulse to all this activity.

The death of Augustus Saint-Gaudens was followed in 1908 by a loan exhibition of his work in various cities, and later by the exhibition of replicas, which were then collected into his studio at Cornish, N. H. This studio was formally thrown open last week to the public as a museum; while announcement is simultaneously made that it is planned to convert the sculptor's estate into a fund for maintaining the museum, to appoint caretakers, and to acquire bronze casts of works not now possessed. It is also announced that a portion of this income will be used to support a number of deserving young artists in Cornish, and that a committee of five will be chosen to make nominations. A better memorial to a man having the most powerful influence on all our art could not be devised, while it may well prove an example whereby the workshops of other American artists to come may—as in Europe—be preserved. The work of Saint-Gaudens may be found scattered in this country from the Logan Monument in Chicago to the Adams and Shaw memorials in Washington and Boston, and there are such examples in Europe as the Stevenson medallion in Edinburgh and the Parnell statue in Dublin.

The historian will come to grief if he attempts to describe the causes of frivolity in the New York of 1915 A. D. as historians have depicted the frivolity of Rome under the early emperors, and to compare bread and the circus with lobster à la Newburgh and the cabaret. Going back to Rome, and assuming the grand manner, he will speak of a city that drew to itself the booty of the civilized world, of a population enervated by the largess of politicians doling out the plunder of three continents, of a citizenship lulled into civic indifference by gifts and amusements—in other words, an imperial city going rotten with prosperity. If the parallel holds for New York, the historian would have to describe a city that went mad over cabarets because it had more money

than it could spend wisely, because it had no serious interest in the problems of the civic and social life, because its serenity was undisturbed by wars or the fear of wars, because there was no unemployment problem, no city budget problem, no workmen's compensation problem, no widows' pension problem, no Mexican problem, no German problem. Else how account for a city gone mad over the fox trot and the white lights? Life was much simpler in imperial Rome than it is in New York to-day, though even under the early Cæsars the picture was not so uniform as the average historian has painted it. At least we know to-day that the fact of 400,000 unemployed in New York city does not militate against the prosperity of the "movies," which are the *circenses* of the masses; and the fact of Wall Street's unemployed has not interfered with the prosperity of the cabarets. Quite the contrary. There is good reason for believing that not all the young men at the afternoon teas are professional idlers and parasites, but that a good many business men and brokers have taken to dancing in the afternoon because there was nothing to do downtown. Perhaps the grasshopper in La Fontaine's fable, who sang all summer, did so because business was rotten, and when the ant told him to go and dance in winter, he was only advising him to do the best possible thing under the circumstances.

What the Mexican people have suffered in falling to their present state of anarchy is made clear by reports from a dozen sources. On the basis of Consular reports and the evidence of Mr. Duvall West, President Wilson states that the destitution is as "appalling" as that in war-harried Europe, and that thousands are on the verge of starvation; while the amount of wanton looting and violence indulged in by the factions has been testified to by committees of resident Americans and by newspaper correspondents. One step to relieve the situation is imperative—the guaranteeing of the safe passage of supplies to the stricken areas. The President's statement, however, forecasts that more will be asked of the leaders than the mere respecting of our shipments. Months ago he issued an appeal, recalling that they represented a people of "dignity, self-possession, and great achievements," and pointing out the goal to which their course was tending. It is altogether probable that this will be repeated, and the strongest representations made that the rigors of the present insane struggle must be softened. If this is backed, as Washington dispatches indicate, with an

intimation that the A B C Powers will support this country in its demands, the air may be appreciably cleared. Short of intervention, or even a policing occupation, there should be means of protecting the inoffensive common people.

The Trentino, so far as concerns present operations, may be described as a triangle standing on its apex with a base of about sixty miles, running from northwest to southeast and forty-five miles on either side. The base line runs roughly from Tonale in the west to the Asiago plateau in the east, and on this line, about twenty miles from Asiago, lies the city of Trent, the objective of the Italian movement. Towards this point the Italians are pressing forward from three directions—from the apex of the triangle along the line of the Adige which bisects the triangle, and from both sides of the triangle. By occupying Ala, on the river Adige, the Italians are less than twenty-five miles from Trent; but because this is the easiest natural route, it is also the most strongly fortified. Before Trent is reached from the south the Italians must account for Roveretto, on the Adige, and for Riva, some miles to the west at the head of the Lago di Garda. Against these two points there are also flanking movements under way, which, if successful, would place the Italians between Roveretto and Trent. One attack is advancing from the west by way of Lago Idrio through the Vale Giudicari, one from Asiago aiming at the Brenta valley, Caldonazzo, and so on to Trent. Finally, from Tonale far to the north a development is under way which would carry the Italians north of Trent itself.

There are still courageous headliners who speak of this or that army as being only twenty-five miles from this or that position. We have learned what miles mean in the present war of furlongs and metres. Especially in mountain warfare, the progress of armies must be painfully slow. The Alps will see repeated the experience of the Carpathians or the Vosges, where isolated positions have been contested for months. There is this difference, however, in favor of the Alps, that the country is cut by river and lake valleys in all directions, which make progress less difficult than the generally rugged nature of the terrain would indicate at first. At best, however, the campaign in the Alps, as in the Carpathians, will resolve itself into isolated combats, a factor which should rather favor the Italian

armies. When it comes to the grand play of strategy, we may assume that German leadership would get the better of the Italian. As it is, the opportunity is rather for small-scale tactics and morale. If a decision is forced in the Alps, it will probably come as the result of a large-scale movement elsewhere. Just as the Russians were driven from the Carpathians because of their defeat on the Dunajec, and the peril of being taken in the rear, so an Italian defeat in the Venetian lowlands, followed by an Austro-German advance across the Isonzo and towards Lombardy, would end the Italian movement against Trent. On the other hand, a successful Italian advance against Trieste would weaken the Austrian position in the mountains.

There is no longer any doubt that the Russian retreat in Galicia has for some days been halted, and that whatever may be the outcome of the battle for the investment of Przemyśl, a period of slow trench warfare has set in along the San. The result has been brought about by two natural factors, the exhaustion of the pursuers and the rallying of the pursued. In the order of things, the Austro-German drive had to lose in force as it moved away from its base, and Russian resistance was bound to stiffen as it fell back on its base. When one considers the long and painful preparation that preceded the Austro-German assault against the line of the Dunajec, just a month ago, the massing of hundreds of heavy guns, the secret mobilization of pontoons and other transportation material, the expenditure of ammunition and the heavy losses of the victors, it is plain that before the Teutonic Allies deliver another stroke towards their goal, which must be Lemberg, carrying with it the liberation of Galicia, there will ensue a second long period of preparation. For the defence of the roads to Lemberg the Russians have an advantage in railways which they did not possess on the Dunajec. At Tarnow the Russian forces were fed by the single line from Jaroslau. At Gorlice, where Mackensen broke through, they were dependent on the railway from Jaroslau, supplemented by the roundabout line from Przemyśl. In their present positions back of the San they are incomparably better off. From Lemberg, which must be the Russian base in Galicia, no less than seven railway lines run north, west, and south, towards the Dniester and the San, a situation conducive not only to an energetic defence, but to a possible resumption of the offensive by the Czar's armies.

GERMANY STILL "IN THE DARK."

At the end of an interview in Berlin on Sunday, the Foreign Minister of Germany, Herr von Jagow, was asked if he thought the German reply would be satisfactory to the United States. "How can I tell you?" he rejoined. He went on to explain how difficult and limited were his means of communication with the German Ambassador in Washington. This made it very hard for Berlin to judge of "public sentiment" in this country. Germany, remarked the man nominally in charge of her foreign policy, is "working in the dark."

The phrase was unintentionally good. It hits off many things which the German Government has done since last July. And it is especially apt as regards the evasive and altogether unsatisfactory response which Germany has now made to the just demands of the United States. This reply is about as bad as could have been drafted. A rude negative, with a defiant breathing out of threatnings and slaughter, would at least have let us know where we stood. But what we have got is a kind of exhibition of moral blindness. Germany is truly in the dark. Her statesmen are in the dark as concerns not only feeling in the United States, but the general execration throughout the civilized world which her murderous course of action has provoked. All this is lost upon the rulers in whose hands German destinies are now placed. They have written a reply to President Wilson such as might have been expected from men whose minds were curtailed against the light of truth and whose consciences were seared. This is really the most hopeless feature of the situation. It makes it look as if we had to deal with a Government that is afflicted with what the theologians call judicial blindness. The German reply was undoubtedly prepared partly for home consumption. It was printed in Berlin before it reached America. Certain of its expressions read as if intended to fire the German heart. And its authors appear to be very complacent over their handiwork. Yet, in reality, a more inadequate and inept and actually insulting diplomatic note never came even from Berlin.

It would doubtless be too harsh to say of the German reply that it embodies deliberate falsehoods. But it does contain insinuated misrepresentations, unproved assertions, and attempts to wriggle away from the facts which make up a total positively disgraceful. The thing is so clear that it is not necessary to argue the matter point by point. Herr von Jagow's effort to instruct

the American Government about its own laws is grotesque. His virtual impeachment of our good faith is an affront. And his callous inhumanity reaches a pitch of sublime impudence when he coolly charges that it was the Cunard Company that was "wantonly gully" of the death of so many passengers on the Lusitania.

All minor considerations in the German reply, with every suggestion of adjustment in the cases of the Gulfight and the Cushing, sink out of sight in the presence of such effrontery. The folly of it, and the pity of it! Germany had the opportunity to do the handsome thing, and she has done the thing infinitely mean. She might have argued like a jurist; instead, she quibbles like a pettifogger. On the main issue, she has not a word to say. Not a syllable in disavowal of intent to go on committing murder on the high seas does she utter. All is complaint of "incautious" neutrals who venture near her indiscriminate torpedoes, and of the wicked British who lure innocent women and children to inevitable death at the hands of Germans. The whole thing is a legal hodge-podge and a moral topsy-turviness of which one would not have believed, short of this demonstration, that even German diplomacy was capable.

The German Government professes to wish to arrive at the "basic facts." But we have had far too many say-so German facts in this war. Germans have developed the will to believe in an even more extraordinary way than they have the will to conquer. It is not simply that they take the official statements of their Government as truer than Holy Writ. They have worked themselves up into a kind of metaphysical fury which makes them certain that what they say is self-evident. We have often given examples. It is not necessary to repeat them. That the alleged facts often contradict each other flatly, makes no difference to these German enthusiasts. They have not studied Kant and Hegel in vain: they can swallow opposing categories with ease. We do not know that anything can be done about this, but we do know that a long debating of the "facts" of a simple case with such people would be a waste of time. To every proof they would think it a sufficient answer to say: "We know that it cannot be so."

We cannot put up with a time-killing discussion of the Lusitania with Germany. The essential facts were determined long ago. They were clearly put in our two notes to the German Government. On the side of the latter, the one glaring "fact" was that it had announced its purpose to sink merchant

vessels, even when they were neutrals. Against that our Government set the fact that such a deed would be a crime under international law. Should such a thing be done to American property or lives, our Government would hold Germany to "strict accountability." The thing was done, in a way to startle the whole world, and thereupon the President called upon Germany for disavowal and reparation, together with the taking of "immediate steps to prevent the recurrence of anything so obviously subversive of the principles of warfare." Mr. Wilson asked for "just, prompt, and enlightened action" in this vital matter; and it is neither just, prompt, nor enlightened for the German Government to seek to develop the whole question of fact in asphyxiating gas. The issue is clear. It must be squarely met. Sooner or later, Germany will have to let us know whether she intends to do and defend lawless acts on the high seas. That is the only fact which is really relevant to her controversy with the United States.

The German reply is confessedly not final. It is a preliminary, ad-interim note which has at last come. Further discussion is invited. This leaves the door open to our Government to do quickly all that remains to be done. Upon President Wilson is now laid the task of throwing beams of light into Germany's darkness. The futilities and irrelevances and insinuations of the German reply he can speedily brush aside, and then again put to the German Government the only questions really at issue. Does Germany mean to make a mock of the law of nations? Will she shut her ears to every cry of humanity? In her dealings with other nations, does she intend to hold herself above the law? If so, she becomes in the act an outlaw nation. And with her, in that case, the United States will know how to deal.

CAN EUROPE BEAR THE ECONOMIC STRAIN?

Step by step along with the movements of the belligerent armies in the field, there has proceeded an equally striking and equally unusual movement in the financial position of the fighting nations. In some respects, the accumulating perplexities which surround each, and which fairly baffle even expert prediction, are similar. The problem of the armies, considered on the hypothesis of a protracted war, is how long the physical capacity of the several belligerents, their supply of able-bodied citizens, will be able

to maintain a conflict marked by the present destructiveness of life. The unparalleled waste of resources and wealth, in maintaining the armies and conducting active hostilities, raises the same question in regard to national resources of capital.

It might, from one point of view, be argued that the considerations arising from the waste of life are more formidable than those arising from the waste of treasure, because the number of soldiers available at the call of a fighting state is determinable, whereas the total sum of capital subject to its requisition is not. But to this it will be answered that the problem of keeping the ranks filled, even under circumstances of prodigious loss of life, is familiar to military history, and that the problem of meeting such expenses as are being incurred to-day is new. Whichever view of the matter is correct, it is certain that the present financial and economic aspect of the war is one of the utmost perplexity.

New York, as the financial capital of the greatest neutral state, is to-day the real money centre of the world; therefore, it is the rate of exchange at New York, on the various belligerent countries, which should measure, more accurately than anything else, the severity of Europe's economic strain. As a matter of fact, New York exchange on all of those countries stands to-day at an utterly abnormal discount. The rates on London, Paris, Berlin, Vienna, Rome, and St. Petersburg, are in each case expressed in figures which would be wholly impossible in time of peace, unless under conditions of momentary financial panic or depreciation of currency.

Berlin exchange, which is now some 14 per cent. below the normal minimum, undoubtedly measures, as an economic fact, a depreciated currency in Germany; Russian exchange on London, which stands at a discount of 24 per cent., gives an apparently similar indication for that country. It is at least debatable whether the 4 per cent. depreciation in French exchange, and the 12 per cent. depreciation in the rate on Italy, may not have indicated similar, though less aggravated, conditions; at all events, the currency in those countries does not appear to be to-day redeemed in gold.

From exchange on London, which has itself sold at a discount of perhaps 1½ per cent. from normal figures, no adverse inferences as to the British currency can very well be drawn; this for several reasons. Unlike the currency of the other European belligerents, the Bank of England notes are

to-day freely redeemed in gold. England, moreover, is the only fighting state which is regularly exporting gold to meet an adverse foreign balance. But beyond even these considerations, it is well known that the current depreciation of sterling exchange is due primarily, not to the pressure of London's own foreign obligations, but to the assumption by that market of the outside burdens of its Allies.

All this, however, is only to state the problem—not to solve it, nor to indicate what later conditions it will lead to. There are two separate factors in the case, each of which will have its bearing on the outcome. One has to do with the attitude of the American market. This country is for the present not only the banking centre of the world, but by far the largest exporting state and the largest creditor on current international account. The returns of foreign trade for April show an excess of merchandise exports, during the four past months, of \$594,000,000, whereas the largest excess in any previous corresponding period of our history was \$302,000,000; and to this, in reckoning our market's international advantage, must be added the saving of, say, \$25,000,000 of remittances usually made in the period to Americans abroad, and the remittance to New York of very large sums for safekeeping during war-time.

In the normal machinery of international exchange, such a position would always be adjusted either by greatly increased import of foreign merchandise, or by wholesale redemption of our own securities from Europe, or by large advances of capital to the European markets. Increased shipments of merchandise, war-ridden Europe cannot provide. She has either exhausted her available supply of American stocks and bonds, or else the owners of such securities are clinging to them as the surest form of investment at this time. There is left the recourse of lending great sums of our own capital in Europe. In one form or another—whether through the granting of "credit balances" or through purchase of Government securities—that is the inevitable result of the existing situation.

The outcome of financial Europe's home position rests on other considerations. It is not easy to see how some at least of the fighting states, in case of a long war, can avoid relapse, for a good while to come, into a currency of irredeemable and depreciated paper. There has been some idle talk of "repudiation" by those Governments—a phrase whose meaning has apparently not

been clear, even to those who used it; and Wall Street has caught up the notion, in some vague conjecture as to whether the "war orders" and the grain exports will be paid for. The answer, if answer to such a question should be needed, is that payment for the shipments is provided for when the orders are placed, and is made in cash by American bankers when the goods are shipped.

All this is apart from the larger problem—how the machinery of European finance can bear the enormous burden of the expenditure on war at a time when, except for the United States and Holland, every important financial nation of the world is entangled in the war. At present, as in the twelve years of the Napoleonic conflict, England is largely sustaining her allies; and England's reserve resources, now as then, are enormous. The problem as it applies to Germany is apparently one of astonishingly expert use of interlacing credit, whose longer scope of operation it is not easy to predict.

THE LATIN RENAISSANCE.

It is a phrase to which French writers returned with increasing frequency during the half-dozen years preceding the war. The word "renaissance" had a double meaning. It described a reassertion of the genius and capacities of the Latin peoples within the national boundaries, and it looked forward to a growing friendship among the various Latin nations that should lead to common political action in the face of a general threat. In both senses the Latin "renaissance" was a rejoinder to the arrogant Germanic pretensions of spiritual and political domination in Europe, the social philosophy of the German professorate and military leaders which was wont to describe the Latin civilization as decadent and the Latin peoples as a vanishing political influence. "From Flanders to Sicily," said Gabriele d'Annunzio the other day, "we are one." They were words spoken by a partisan in the moment of triumph, but they have been undoubtedly welcomed in France as commemorating the first step, and a momentous step, towards the realization of Latin unity. In the fiery test of war the French people have proved to themselves and to the world that they are not a decaying nation. The entrance of Italy into the struggle has shown that the sentiment of kinship among the Mediterranean nations is a living force.

To-day, therefore, we must look upon the idea of a union of Latin peoples in defence

of their hereditary civilization as no more remote a possibility than the union of Teutonic Europe, of which the Pan-Germans have been accustomed to speak characteristically as a metaphysical certainty in the lap of time. Self-confidence begets confidence, and the easy assurance of Germanic Imperialists has hitherto impressed the world more deeply than the less frequently reiterated aspirations of the Latins. Under the influence of German self-assurance the outside world has counted the peoples of Teuton race on the Continent and has acknowledged the possibility of a future Germanic Empire from the Arctic to the Mediterranean. The world has not counted the descendants of Rome, taking it for granted, almost, that in numbers they must be hopelessly outdistanced. Yet a mere count of heads to-day would show the peoples of Latin descent occupying second place in the ethnography of Europe, only a little less ahead of the Germanic peoples than they are behind the Slavs. Take the Teutonic populations of Germany and Austria, add all of Scandinavia, Holland, the Flemish-speaking people of Belgium, the German-speaking people of Switzerland, and the total stands at about one hundred millions. Take France, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Rumania, add the Walloons of Belgium, the Rumans in Austria-Hungary, the Latin cantons of Switzerland, and the sum stands at nearly one hundred and twenty millions. There is no thought here of an actual political alliance of the Latin races; yet among them the bonds of common feeling and interest are plainly as strong as among the hypothetical Teuton confederacy. The union of France, Italy, and French Belgium is a fact; the adhesion of Rumania is almost a fact; the adhesion of Spain to a common cause, if the need should arise, is at least as probable as the adhesion of the Dutch or the Danes to German interests.

The history of the Latin "awakening" is a matter of not much more than a decade. About 1904 began that rapprochement between France and Italy which was to efface the rancors of the time when a French army in Rome stood in the way of complete Italian unification, the fears and suspicions of later years when French actions in Tunis were taken as a menace to Italian interests. About the same time began the internal renaissance in France. We may date it from the Kaiser's journey to Tangier and the onset of the long series of Franco-German crises over Morocco. That conflict, which before this had been regarded as the obsession of a minority thirsting for revenge for Alsace-Lorraine, impressed itself as an ap-

proaching reality upon the mass of the French people. Before this there were many in France who would have acquiesced in the German sneer at France as a decadent nation. The depressing memories of 1870, the growing might of Germany standing out against a stationary French population, the strife of parties, attaining in the Dreyfus affair the dimensions almost of a national catastrophe, the wanderings of the younger generation into the aberrant pathways of epicureanism, cynicism, revolutionism, anti-patriotism, the sickly literary and artistic schools, Symbolism, Mallarmé, Huysmans, Satanism, what not—here indeed were the signs of an overripe civilization passing into deliquescence, of a nation that had lost its virility, given up to acrid pleasures and to party strife, like the decadent Greens and Blues of the Byzantine circuses.

And then came Tangier, Algiciras, the constant challenge from across the Rhine, and the nation woke to realities. The change in the spirit of the nation can be traced in no way more clearly than in its literary men. In the person of Maurice Barrès we see French men of letters come out of their ivory towers, their gardens of exotic pleasures, and exalt the common virtues of manhood—labor, duty, patriotism. Barrès protests against the race of *déracinés*, exquisites torn from the soil of the common life. There springs up a literature of Alsace and Lorraine, as if in premonition of the reawakening of the old struggle. Writers like Bazin and Henry Bordeaux come to the front—men who have long stood out for the obscured virtues of the French people—the love of home, the family, the soil, the simple duties of life. More and more frequently come from the serious writers of France hot protests against the slanders cast upon an entire people by the boulevardiers and vaudevillists of Paris. The decadents of ten years ago are the men in the trenches of to-day.

Some such evolution was under way in Italy. That nation, to be sure, did not think of itself, and was not thought of, as decadent. To Italy the year 1870 was a year of triumph and not of disaster. Italy was growing in population, in wealth, and in prestige. Yet we cannot overlook the significant fact that it should have been a D'Annunzio who became the great literary champion of Italy's latest aspirations, and, after him, Marinetti of mountebank Futurist fame. D'Annunzio, the poet of lust and flame and blood, is to-day the preacher of patriotism, of self-sacrifice. To D'Annunzio was given the principal rôle in the Garibaldi celebration at Quarto, and the man who wrote the "Tri-

umph of Death" and the incestuous chronicles of the "Città Morte," was the man who closed a noble oration at Garibaldi's monument with a series of benedictions:

What we demand to-day is not an altar of acacias and myrtles, oh Italians, but of virile souls.

Blessed those who to-day can muster twenty years, a chaste spirit, a well-tempered body, and a mother ready to give.

Blessed those who, waiting and hoping, have not wasted their forces, but kept them intact for the discipline of the war camp.

An awakening indeed.

SOUTH AMERICA AND THE SHIPPING QUESTION.

Of the three chief proposals for increasing facilities of transportation between North and South America the Pan-American Conference ignored one and definitely split upon the two others. Samuel Hale Pearson, of Buenos Ayres, suggested that the United Fruit Company and other corporations doing a prosperous business with Central America be induced to enlarge their capital and extend their sailings below the Isthmus. This was thought impracticable. The South American delegates stood by the Uruguayan plan for ship-subsidies, direct or indirect, paid by a shipping combination of the American republics. Several countries, notably Argentina, have in the past expressed the desire to subsidize intercontinental commerce. But the Administration held firmly to its once-defeated project for a Government-owned line. Why not, according to one suggestion, a huge Pan-American steamship system financed by all the nations of the New World? Against this the difficulties of administration, of arranging the ports of call, of fixing the sovereignty of the vessels, were naturally urged. The failure of the discussion emphasizes the fact that private initiative alone can solve the problem.

There is the strongest reason for doubting, in the first place, that cis-Atlantic transportation is at the desperately low ebb that the supporters of a line owned by the Government would have us believe. Last October, when the shipping stringency was at its maximum, the New York Chamber of Commerce reported that sixteen steamers left this city for South America, and that several had less than full cargoes. Any one who picks up the *Journal of Commerce* will find therein from fifteen to twenty advertisements of companies handling goods to every country on both coasts. There are freighters not mentioned in these advertisements, while between our Pacific and At-

lantic ports there are over fifty steamers to Panama, whence goods are transshipped to Peru and Chili. The high freight rates prevailing the world over have naturally drawn a considerable amount of shipping from the coastal trade into international service, and of this South America has received its share. If we look towards the future, our shipyards are working to turn out more vessels than ever before, and a considerable number are destined for Latin-American routes. But the central issue is of the existence or non-existence of any immediate emergency. The recurrent plea for expanded transportation is upon the ground that we have an extraordinary opportunity to capture the whole intercourse formerly diverted to Europe. But South American countries are laboring under a severe and long-continued business depression, of which European exporters were complaining before the outbreak of the war. Only a very serious dearth of shipping could justify such radical measures as the two which the Conference had under consideration.

No merchant marine can be built in a day. But in so far as an increased demand exists in the South American and other trades, certain forces seem moving steadily to fill it. There has been some disappointment with the Act of last August admitting foreign-built ships to American registry. About 150 vessels, with a tonnage of over 500,000, were rapidly brought under our flag—a marked addition to an over-seas commerce fleet which had totalled less than 1,100,000 tons. Since the first months of the war, the number of such entries has steadily fallen off, and the momentum of the movement is wholly lost. But it has undoubtedly added to the scope of our commerce, and in some degree to the flexibility with which we can meet demands from new quarters. The war has prevented the establishment of several lines projected from Europe to Western South America, and to this opportunity we have fallen heir. The greatest reason for confidence, however, springs from the new conditions in shipbuilding. Up to 1914 British and other yards greatly underbid America in construction—partly because of cheaper labor, partly because the plate-mills of this country sold ship-plates at a lower cost in Great Britain than at home. But European yards are now busy with naval work, while the increased cost of both labor and materials has made the old British scale for shipbuilding out of the question. With the first cost of vessels as low in America as abroad, a careful analy-

sis of operating expenses shows that the delays in port of American ships for repairs have been much less than those for foreign vessels, and thus the unjust burden thrown upon our trade by the new Seamen's Act is partially offset. With little new tonnage in the world's yards, and that afloat decreasing at an abnormal rate, there will be an excellent market for vessels long after the war.

The great desideratum is not governmental intervention to supplement private enterprise, but governmental protection of the business now existing or in prospect. The primary step is a restoration of free and fair operating conditions to our ship-owners. The one action unanimously desired by our merchants and maritime interests is a repeal of the onerous burdens imposed by the La Follette and other acts. One of the delegates to the Conference quoted the owner of vessels under the British and American flags as saying that each of the latter ships cost \$8,000 a year more to operate than the former. The announcement of an established line, like the Pacific Mail, that it will go out of business on November 2, 1915, two days before the La Follette Act becomes effective, must give the boldest of entrepreneurs pause. Our regulations with regard to the employment of homogeneous crews, our requirement of 40 per cent. more space for quarters than English law demands, our specifications as to the number of able seamen, are one side of the question. Our law that American ships must be built in American yards if they are to trade between home ports, and that they must be officered by American citizens, is a further limit to expansion. Such limits must be sensibly relaxed, before we can have a permanently enlarged mercantile marine.

SAY NOT THE STRUGGLE NAUGHT AVAILETH.

In the speech introducing Mayor Mitchel, at the Panama-Pacific Exposition a few days ago, the Mayor was referred to as "New York's best exhibit." This is not the language of ordinary formal compliment; neither may it be regarded as fulsome flattery. Every one knows just what must have been in the speaker's mind—the broad and indisputable fact that the government of America's foremost city is in worthy hands, that it is being carried on solely for the benefit of the five millions of people who are now its inhabitants. Mr. Mitchel himself has won the hearty respect of the whole community,

and more than justified the expectations which were entertained of him when he was a candidate; but over and above any strictly personal estimate stands the value placed upon the character of the city Administration as a whole. And this is well understood, not only here at home, but throughout the country. If an observer on the Pacific Coast thinks of Mayor Mitchel as "New York's best exhibit," it is because he is an exhibit of New York's capacity for sound municipal government.

If this were an isolated phenomenon, it would afford reason for a certain temporary satisfaction, but could not furnish ground for a feeling of solid and assured gain. But whether we look at the story of New York city alone, or take a survey of city government in America generally, we cannot fail to recognize an advance so great that, even so recently as ten years ago, it would have seemed impossible. Tammany is neither dead nor made over into an agency of pure government; and in Philadelphia, and Chicago, and Cincinnati, and Baltimore, the necessity of fighting bosses and rings has by no means disappeared. Neither the workings of the commission form of government where that has been adopted, nor the efforts of the workers for good government where it has not been adopted, have relegated completely to the past those vices of our American municipal organization with which we have been so long familiar. But we have reached everywhere—or certainly almost everywhere—a condition in which the maintenance of at least a fairly decent standard of government is no longer dependent solely on the personal quality of the men we elect to office. We do, as a rule, get a better class of men; but even more important is the fact that we get far better results from the same class of men. It is not only that Philadelphia downs the machine and gets a Blankenburg, but that when Baltimore fails to down the machine and gets a Preston, he turns out to be a pretty good Mayor. Indeed, it is no more than the sober truth that the worst phases of the city misgovernment which was so familiar ten or twenty years ago are now simply out of the question in the leading American cities.

The endeavor for the purification of our politics, as a conscious and organized movement, had its inception shortly after the close of our great war. Its small beginnings were to be found in the early agitation for civil-service reform, of which Mr. Jenckes's civil-service reform bill was a forerunner, and which was persistently and powerfully promoted by Dorman B. Eaton, George William

Curtis, Carl Schurz, and Edwin L. Godkin. The civil-service movement soon achieved a definite and invaluable result in the enactment of a national law; and in a number of States similar legislation was had. The movement for better city government, on the other hand, seemed incapable of making substantial headway. "Upheavals" were invariably followed by reactions; the struggles of the reformers were like the labor of Sisyphus. There came a time when to take part in these struggles was to lay one's self open not to opposition, but to ridicule. To be a "mugwump" was bad enough; to be a "goo-goo" was a pitiful absurdity. We used to be told that it was idle to expect to train a democracy to better standards of government; you could not get them interested in anything that was merely critical, you had to appeal to them by something constructive.

Now there has been going on, during the past ten or fifteen years, a great deal of constructive reform agitation; and some of it has been highly successful. It is undoubtedly true that this element in the situation has contributed to the general toning up of our political life. But the improvement in our city governments has not come in the main from anything of this kind, but has been the cumulative result of forty years of effort expressly directed to that end. And often when it has seemed that little or nothing had been gained, in point of fact a great deal had been gained. The New York city charter, with its centring of responsibility upon the Mayor and the Board of Estimate, was the result not of any grand movement for social justice, but of the fight for honest and decent government; and it is only this that made Gaynor's Administration possible, and that made possible the present big advance on his Administration. After all, the fight for these gains had on its side all the time the quiet but in the end irresistible forces of truth and right. We have set up a better standard first here, then there; and the backslidings have never been complete, the standard has ultimately established itself beyond dispute. We have not always been able to see that the tree was growing; but as we look back ten, or twenty, or forty years, we cannot fail to realize how great has been the growth. More spectacular changes there have been; but surely no larger or more substantial result has been achieved in any direction than that which embodies the cumulative result of "mugwump" or "goo-goo" effort. For this result is nothing less than the removal from our American democracy of that which has been its greatest reproach—the failure of municipal government.

Foreign Correspondence

THE LUSITANIA—ASPHYXIATING-GASES
—THE FALLEN CANADIANS—THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF WOMEN.

By JAMES F. MUIRHEAD.

LONDON, May 14.

The sinking of the *Lusitania* dominates thought. It has given our determination a grimmer hue. Gleams of light are hard to find in this catastrophe; but it certainly tends to close our ranks and diminish the number of the well-meaning yearners after a premature and illusory peace. Naturally, all our eyes turn to America. It is, however, significant of the advance in our comprehension of the United States since the war began, that some of our leading journals seem neither to expect nor to desire military intervention from that nation. The *Observer* writes: "We shall certainly not rank ourselves among those who urge the United States to abandon their neutrality. Great and grievous as is the wrong done to them, we hold very decidedly that they have every reason for prudent restraint." The *Star* believes that "President Wilson will find another way than the way of war to justify all that America in the past has stood for," and says it will be courage, not cowardice, if America nails the flag of peace to her mast. These may be regarded as idealistic utterances, but there are also practical thinkers who believe that America may best help the cause of the Allies by keeping out of the war herself, and doubling her output of arms and ammunition in their behalf. In any case, our sympathy goes out strongly to the United States for the wanton slaughter of her citizens in the exercise of their undoubted right to cross the Atlantic Ocean when they please; and our sympathy will be all the keener if America is denied the one source of relief left open to us—that of vigorous action against our assailants.

In "The Way of All Flesh," Samuel Butler says of his hero that, when asked what ground there was on which a man might rest the sole of his foot and tread in reasonable safety, he was still too young to reach the answer, "On common sense." It looks, however, as if most of the young people involved in this European cataclysm, looking round amid the failure or apparent failure of religion and philosophy, will finally take their stand on this platform. To the survivors of the struggle, any well-rounded period expressing the ideal attitude towards life of the peaceable children of an older generation, will seem more or less of the nature of futility. And I think we may trust them to reconstruct civilization on the wide new foundation—laid by an unbiassed facing of facts.

In connection with this point, however, it is interesting to note that the Christian Science healers of London have been particularly busy since the war began in trying to protect individuals or units at the front from what, to "mortal mind," are wounds and death. Results are, apparently, satisfactory to them. If the faith of Christian Scientists survives this chaos of suffering, we may well believe it unshakable.

The report of Lord Bryce's Committee on the alleged atrocities in Belgium was published yesterday. Comment on this must be left to neutrals. A Briton, whose own country is not yet beyond the possibility of similar hap-

penings, cannot be expected to write dispassionately on the subject. Those of us who remember many happy days and pleasant friendships in Germany are convinced that there must be many Germans in the United States who would reprobate the sinking of the *Lusitania* and those apparently well proved doings in Belgium.

The memorial service for the Canadians who have fallen in the war, held in St. Paul's Cathedral on May 10, was singularly impressive, not only from the hushed throng that filled the huge church, the pomp of solemn music, and the exultant eulogy of the brave dead, but still more as a conscious expression of the unity of the British Empire. The peoples of the Empire feel, as never before, that they are one folk; and in St. Paul's, where the monuments of Colonial statesmen mingle with those of English soldiers, the Canadians were mourned, not as allies, not as adherents of England, but as England's own sons. For a marvellous force, liberated by the menace of war, has abridged time and space more subtly and more swiftly than "wireless"; and the Atlantic is now no wider than the Medway, which divides the men of Kent from the Kentish men. The service concluded with the "Last Post," the appealing notes of which are interpreted by soldiers as crying "Are ye here? Are ye here?" The answer comes back in Canadian, Australian, and New Zealand voices, not from across the oceans, but from the posts of danger in Flanders and the Dardanelles: "We are here."

The International Congress of Women at The Hague has met and parted. Of the members in attendance more than 1,000 were Dutch, 48 were American, 30 Scandinavian, 28 German, 10 Hungarian, 6 Austrian, 5 Belgian, 3 English, and 2 Canadian. Of its proceedings, it may be enough to say that nothing was said or done that could hurt the feelings of the German delegates. At the meeting in London, held on May 13, to report on the Congress, several able and eloquent women spoke on the madness of war, and on the necessity for a larger share of woman's influence in shaping the policy of the future. But it was Miss Jane Addams who made us realize that a higher human consciousness is gradually emerging, and must continue to develop until war has become impossible. The large internationalism and cosmopolitanism of her view were something more than the internationalism and cosmopolitanism of even the most advanced European minds, because they seemed to inhere in a deeper subconsciousness rather than in mental enlightenment—something too deep, too intrinsic, too much the essence of an attitude towards life, to be formulated. Some of us, whose suffrages would probably go out to Miss Addams as one of the greatest and best of living women, are just a little inclined to regret her participation in a gathering round which (for the moment, at least) hangs some suspicion of futility and inopportune.

The general attitude of hundreds of young officers at the front, who rise to the highest point of heroic action and endurance, may or may not be the result of a certain subconscious philosophic outlook. Recent letters to the *Times* from officers in France show how intensely repugnant to them is the attempt of a sensation-loving press to exploit their "heroic" deeds which they look upon as simple duty. The characteristic British shyness and dislike of comment may well be respected, even if the world of newspaper readers loses

some thrills. It is so characteristic and fundamental a British trait with difficulty reaching the point of articulate protest that it seems as if its root must lie deep in some philosophic subsoil just as much as if it could freely express itself in the intellectual coinage of words.

Since I wrote the above, President Wilson's admirable note to Germany in regard to the Lusitania has reached England. It has been received here with immediate and warm approbation. I have yet to hear a dissentient voice. Some people consider that it will take its place among the best and most important state papers of history. The satisfaction and relief over the fact that the United States has definitely and officially declared herself in moral sympathy with the Allies are very great. Nor is this satisfaction purely of a self-seeking character. It is largely due to the belief that the United States is playing the rôle demanded by her history and traditions, that she is falsifying all the fears of the hasty and the suspicious, and that she is justifying her claim to be a moral leader among the nations. Even if the note be followed by no action of physical force, its psychological comfort and stimulation are of untold value. The sinking of the Lusitania may well prove to be the greatest disaster that Germany has yet suffered in the war.

MAYDAY IN PEACE AND WAR—NATIONALIST FLOWERS—COUNT GOLUCHOWSKI AS A PARISIAN—ANCIENT WAR COMMUNQUES.

By STODDARD DEWEY.

PARIS, May 15.

One thing should convince foreigners that France is united. It is the unusual and unbroken peace and concord at home.

Mayday, for example, has passed without a shadow of disturbance. As late as 1906, in the collisions between police and organized labor on that day, there were 200 wounded and 668 arrests. Trouble had been foretold, and a food famine was to be a part of it. I was persuaded to buy an entire ham beforehand, and had much inconvenience in getting away with it afterwards. There was a colonial proverb about the "Speck und Eler" of the Pennsylvania Dutch—"Ham and eggs are good some of the time, but they are not good all the time." That Paris of nine years ago with its remembrances seems as old as those good old colony times.

This buying up of provisions as if another Commune threatened was caught up by the music-hall *revues* in their topical songs.

For the First of May the papers made
All the Parisians much afraid.
Thinking families would be their lot,
A stock of flour all had got;
But I who am sharp
Sold them all I had in my shop:
To Arthur Meyer,
A quarter Gruyère;
To Monsieur Rochefort,
An old Roquefort;
A quarter of bacon,
To Sarah Bernhardt.

—and so on for other notoriety of the day.

Arthur Meyer still writes in the *Gaulois*, but music-hall songs interest themselves only in subjects of war. Henri Rochefort has gone beyond these shores of cheese and revolutions, but the fiery nationalism of his later days helped to prepare the people of Paris for the present strain on their patriotism. And

Sarah Bernhardt is nursing her new leg for another tour of America, as is her right and glory. In 1870, she did valiant work in the ambulances.

The May flower—*muguet*, our lily of the valley—has been sold as usual in Paris. Every working girl wore a little sprig, little because the belated spring lessened the supply. Here, too, national sentiment came in. The *muguet* sold with roots is from Germany, and it was understood none such was to be offered for sale. Some of the growers in the environs of Paris had such plants from bulbs of ten years ago, and ventured to offer them. Among them was one calling herself "flower-seller to the President." This started up a correspondence in the newspapers about the lily of the valley, which is national. At the Neuilly Fair one year I won a rabbit playing at Aunt Sally, and presented it to the cook. She was from the countryland of Limoges, where rabbits grow spontaneous; but when she carried her live present home in vacation, it won instant respect as a "Paris rabbit." All this forecasts the welcome likely to be extended to articles made in Germany when war is over.

The labor troubles of Mayday were associated with flowers of the season. In 1891 there were general strikes at Fourmies, a mining and manufacturing town of the North, which has borne the brunt of this war since August last. For some obscure reason the soldiers fired on the strikers. Among the wounded were young girls decked with hawthorn blooms. The labor leaders swore it should never be forgotten, and year after year Labor's Mayday was awaited with apprehension. Resentful memories gradually died away as they always do, although New Hampshire boys after two centuries and a half still sang in my time—

I see no reason
Why Gunpowder treason
Should ever be forgot!

The last threatened revival of Labor's Mayday ended in a fiasco. It was in 1910, and Prefect of Police Lépine had the happy thought of securing Labor's right to parade and peace at the same time by sending troops and police to accompany the procession—man to man. This turned the whole demonstration into a gigantic police parade. Juarès recognized the drowning-out in his paper *L'Humanité*: "Helmets and cuirasses alone shone in the spring sunlight!" The trick was not new, although I have forgotten the name of the Chief of Police of New York who applied it a lifetime ago.

"Peace may now break out when we least expect it!" says Tristan Bernard. Paris—with labor at the head—is watching out for it when it does come. In the Thirteenth Ward, which is around the Gobelins manufactory, an exhibition of apprentices' work has just been made much of. Minister of Commerce Thomson inaugurated it, and it has been officially visited by Minister of Labor Blenvenu-Martin. Ferdinand Buisson, the man who has had most to do with popular education in the Republic, took pains to remark: "People will believe that it is victory which saves France. So it is in a measure; but the battles will continue in another field—and that, too, we shall have to defend foot by foot, and often reconquer it."

Good workmen are not made in a day. Obstacles come equally from employers, who hurry apprentices to productive work, and from parents, hurrying them to earn. In three Paris wards where most skilled labor is

employed—the thirteenth, nineteenth, and twentieth (East End)—draughtsmanship is made an essential part of apprentices' training. In the present exhibition, each apprentice's draughts are placed beside his work. There are exhibits of mechanics, locksmiths, wheelwrights, joiners, coppersmiths, coopers, sheet-iron workers, carvers, and decorators—and sewing in the women's department.

These spring days have brought back many memories of Paris when, like all France, it was working industriously for peace while Germany was silently organizing her people as a war machine. It has been said repeatedly that Emperor Francis Joseph would end by sending Count Goluchowski to Rome, to make a last desperate appeal to the Italian King and Government. Thirty years ago, Agenor Goluchowski of Goluchowo was very much of a Parisian and had his pet name "Goloo!" He has been an object of distrust to Germany ever since. In spite of being Austrian Ambassador, I doubt if he escaped the fame of music halls. Like Prince Metternich, whose sprightly wife led the whirl at Empress Eugénie's court, Count Goluchowski became a pivot on which what was left of that outworn Imperial society turned. On June 3, 1885, he even became a part of it by his marriage to Princess Anne Murat. This lady was a granddaughter of Caroline Fraser, the Scotch-American who married the old Prince Murat during his exile in Bordentown, New Jersey. Her blonde hair and blue eyes descended in the family, and the Goluchowskis were a handsome international couple. The latest American Princess Murat is now a worker in the war charities of Paris.

For some ten years before 1906, the Count was charged with the Foreign Affairs of Austria-Hungary; and he steered the Dual Empire along ways of peace. He retired when the party pushing aggressively eastward gained control and began the policy which has ended in the present cataclysm. At Algiers he moderated German pretensions and earned lasting resentment. He was never anti-Russian, although a Pole of the Poles.

The Académie des Inscriptions, which principally deals with erudition out of time, has now something timely from the events of the day. Count Durrieu has brought to mind curious documents of a French expedition in 1494, under King Charles VIII, to win back Constantinople from the Turks. A beginning was made and the Turks are said to have got into a great panic. The King had frequent messages sent to his French subjects, and these are foreshadowings of modern political periodicals. They were little quarto leaves, generally folded once across, giving four printed pages. Except that the size was smaller, they remind one of some of our daily papers of Paris in August and September last. M. Salomon Reinach has found something earlier—Caesar's Commentaries of the Gallic War, in which our childhood "divided all Gaul in three halves!" These commentaries, he maintains, were not written all together in the year 51 B. C., when war was over. He discerns in the first book two reports written at some months of interval. In the first, the German peril is passed over in silence, while in the second it is brought out fully. In the meantime, Caesar had driven Ariovistus across the Rhine. The commentaries of the French War Office to-day are commentaries of a similar operation which the Gauls' descendants are attempting against Germans of their own.

A Mechanistic View of War

OBSERVATIONS OF AN AMERICAN SURGEON IN FRANCE AND BELGIUM, TOGETHER WITH SUGGESTIONS AS TO HOW THE TENDENCY TOWARDS WAR MAY BE LESSENED IN THE FUTURE.*

By G. W. CRILE, M.D.

The inhabitants of the warring nations to-day are divided into two classes, those who are killing man and those who are saving man. There is no other occupation. Railways are hauling food, ammunition, and men to the battle-line, and hauling back the wounded. Factories are turning out uniforms and guns, powder and shot. Telegraphs and telephones speak only of war. The printing press describes battles and records the names of the dead. Hotels and schools are hospitals, and parks are drilling-grounds. Iron and steel, copper and lead, are implements of injury and death; while the universities and scientific laboratories are deserted sanctuaries. Wealth and station, titles and honors, are lost; man is stripped of his trappings of civilization and has reverted to a common brute level.

At the American Ambulance Hospital in Paris, for example, bankers, business men, artists, and noblemen are orderlies. American college men, great hunters, and soldiers of fortune drive ambulances. Artists, authors, actresses, and social leaders are auxiliary nurses. A luxury-loving, self-indulgent class has been born again. They have found the pleasure of making a bed, giving an alcohol bath, and repairing an automobile; of submitting to discipline and of conquering a daily task; they have felt the deep though unexpected satisfaction of sacrifice and service, and they have met and merited the grateful eye and heard the appreciative word earned by their useful work. This is one of the good by-products of the war.

On the other hand, the slippered grandfather has been drawn from the fireside to the plough; the younger son and daughter from the school to the factory. Old age has been robbed of its serenity, youth of its opportunity, while the burying squad has marked with a rude cross the resting-place of the masters in science, art, and industry, and the daughters of the land have the scant comfort of the memory of a soldier's death.

The activation of the soldier in the presence of actual danger in facing an evenly matched enemy resembles that experienced by men in many other situations in life, as in being held up by a burglar, in a railway accident, or in facing a serious surgical operation; and, most closely of all, the activation of battle resembles the activation of the hunter of formidable wild beasts.

Man in war, like a hunting animal, is elusive, resourceful, adaptive, brave, and per-

sistent. When hunted, man turns hunter himself, and like wolves men hunt in packs. Therefore, when men are hunting one another, their brains are intensely activated to this end, and all other relations of life are dispossessed. In the first impact of war many men in all of the armies underwent nervous breakdown; many became insane; but the great majority became seasoned and maintained a state of good health. One sees men who have worn the same clothes for months and have not seen a bath. Their clothes are stiff with mud and reek with filth. As one observes them, these trench-fighting soldiers resemble miners or sewer-diggers more than heroes.

I.

In order that I might study the phenomena of war at first hand, I visited the front, travelling from Paris along the great army bases to Dunkerque; thence through bombarded Furnes and the zone of artillery fire on to Ypres. The fields were being cultivated by old men and women.

From Dunkerque we took the Calais-Ostend road, at this moment the most important highway in the world. Built by the Romans, utilized and improved by Napoleon, traversed by many armies of the past, to-day it is coveted by the Germans, who have left behind an army of dead as a token of its value.

The road ran along a canal near the sea, which was flanked by high sand-dunes and hidden from view. At intervals zig-zag trenches and massive barbed-wire entanglements extended from the roadside as far as one could see. The canal was occupied by armed British boats, with guns mounted on the sides and on each end, and by huge barges drawn sometimes by a horse, but more often by old men or women, and sometimes by a string of women and children.

The broad and worn road itself was tense with activity. Carts, convoys, buses, ambulances, motorcycles, bicycles, high-powered cars of the General Staff, armored cars, cannon, limousines, even a pontoon bridge in sections, all in battle gray—heedlessly rushed on to their respective destinations; and in contrast to all this was the aged Belgian at the plough patiently toiling on, even under active shell fire, to wrest his toll from the soil! Whether coming or going, whether grouped in villages or in the fields, whether waiting in trenches or driving convoys, whether artillery, infantry, or cavalry, all were grave, serious, and emotionless. All had the appearance of men returning from a hard day's work in mill or factory. They looked tired and worn and aged beyond their years.

In places we saw portions of the inundation which caused so great a loss to the Belgians in rich lands, but which turned back the onrushing Germans in their titanic drive to the sea. Here a lake, there a canal, everywhere mud. As our eyes swept over this great inland sea, we could visualize the thousands of German cadavers that were waiting to be disclosed by the receding waters; faithful even in death, they will

add to the defence of their fatherland by their decomposing stench.

As I observed man's intensive application to war amidst cold and rain and mud; in rivers, canals, and lakes; under ground, in the air, and under the sea; infected with vermin, covered with scabs, the stench of his own filthy body mingling with that of his decomposing comrades; as I saw begrimed, bedraggled man with unflagging zeal striving eagerly to kill his fellows, I reflected on the mystic urge of the sound of great cannon and the difficulty of sticking to one's comfortable task in times of peace, and realized that war, not peace, is the normal state of man.

II.

What is the impelling force that makes man wage such a war? It is through the fortuitous mating of an infinite number of ancestors whose characteristics have been transmitted down to the present time that the individual of to-day has become the product of all the past. Within himself every individual holds the imperfect record of the ascent of man. In the gradual evolution of man the ever-present law of continuity holds. From birth to maturity civilized man is tossed upon the same seas of passion and wrecked upon the same rocks as those upon which the simplest tribesman was wrecked aeons ago! During this great upward struggle man has steadily gained greater control over the forces of nature and has become more and more completely adapted to his environment. By the fundamental process of a physical contest with environment he has made the forces of nature turn with tireless arms the countless wheels of toil. Through breeding he has modified the physical form and the texture of the flesh of many domestic animals; he has found ways of utilizing the sun's energy which is stored in the immense vegetation of the carboniferous age in the form of coal; and he has harnessed the waterfalls. With these vast stores of energy he has made iron and steel; with iron and steel he has encircled the globe with huge agencies of transportation that conquer time, space, and gravity, and through these agencies there are brought to him products of every land. He has devised paper, ink, and the printing press, and these have given him a record of the notable motor and emotional acts of his ancestors.

These descendants of the cave-man have captured and domesticated lightning; they have enslaved the world with a copper nervous system which enables them to activate the action-patterns of, and in turn be activated by, hundreds of millions of the human race. A little change in the chemistry of a human brain-cell may wreck a bank in India, fire the first gun in a great war, or break a woman's heart. Such is the web of life which man has woven and by means of which he so completely dominates the earth.

But with all his beneficent control of the forces of nature, there have been created vast forces for man's destruction; and civilized man is to-day in a death struggle

*The substance of this paper was used for an address delivered under the auspices of Western Reserve University, Cleveland, O., March 17.

with the Frankenstein of his own creation. Controlling a vast world of limitless force and endless machinery, man fails to control that all-important machine, himself. Can man in the possession of this power to create be so modified as to minimize his tendency to kill his fellows? An analysis of man's adaptive response to the web of life offers a suggestion.

The offspring of animals at the time of birth are slightly if at all equipped to adapt themselves to environment; the simpler the reaction of a species, the earlier is their mechanism for adaptation completed. Hence we find that the young of different species have different methods, and need different periods of time for completing their adaptation for adult life.

The size and plasticity of the human brain make it trainable. The brain of man may be likened to a moving-picture film running from birth to death. Among the infinite number of pictures, some obtain possession of the final common path, or become adequate stimuli produce action-patterns. These action-patterns make up the conduct of the individual. In other words, man's action-patterns reflect as in a mirror his environment. If a colt grows up in the wilds, it becomes a wild horse; if bred by man, its action-patterns are domestic. The young of all animals are plastic. The child of man is *most* plastic. If the child remains in a Christian portion of the web of life, he is Christian; if in a pagan web, he becomes pagan. If he remains in a peaceful web, peaceful action-patterns result; if in a warlike web, warlike patterns are inevitable. The brain patterns that dominate at the close of the adolescent and at the beginning of the adult period fix and determine until death the vital reactions of that individual.

How, then, does all this apply to war? I shall attempt to show that war is the end-effect of the action-patterns previously established in a people. Man is not a stranger to fight; the great oceans would not hold the blood he has shed. The carcasses of his slain would heap the earth; the entire surface of the earth has been many times slain in its organic form by man, and perhaps the organic forms he has slain in greatest numbers have been his own kind.

In man, therefore, we are dealing with a red-handed glutton whose phylogenetic action-patterns are facilitated for the killing of his own and other species. The question at once is this: can such an animal, blood-thirsty by nature and training, who produces and kills hundreds of millions of animals yearly, and who kills at intervals hundreds of thousands of his fellow-men, can he be so modified as to live in peace?

A suggestion as to how this may be done is seen in the method of building up peace reactions in other fighting animals, animals evolved to be life-destroyers even more than man; as, for example, the dog. The action-patterns of the dog, the preservation of whose ancestors depended on their killing other ani-

mals, have been so modified by man that now the peace element in his action-patterns predominates over his killing patterns. Thus, through breeding and through training has the brain of the dog been modified. If the dog, whose reactions are in comparison to the reactions of man so few, whose brain has not acquired through phylogeny facilitated paths of action for mutual help, for herd-existence, even—if the mechanism of the dog has been so successfully modified by man, what limit can be set to the modification of the action-patterns of man by education and training planned for the development of peace-patterns?

If we have not heretofore found a means of preventing war, we have at least found that certain things cannot prevent war. We know that the preparation for war cannot prevent war; we know that our present system of education cannot prevent war; we know that commercial relations, treaties, even, cannot prevent war; we know that the burden of debt, bankruptcy, and the resultant grind of poverty cannot prevent war; we know that religion and military systems, and even the fear of wounds and hunger, of suffering and death, cannot prevent war; in short, the very civilization of to-day is itself at war! If the civilization of to-day cannot prevent war, it is because under existing conditions war is inevitable; because it is the normal result of the action-patterns, created by the mould in which has been formed the present generation of men, for in the action-patterns of the present generation of men war-patterns preponderate. Therefore, like Prometheus, we are chained to the rock of fate, unless the time has come for the entrance of a new factor, a factor by means of which the action-patterns of the next generation may be so changed that peace-patterns will predominate over those of war.

III.

How can this be done? The following is a theoretical suggestion: We must begin in the nursery, in the school, in the university, in our literature, in our daily papers, magazines, books. In all of these war should be mentioned only to be shown as anti-social; to be condemned. Battleships, forts, guns, armor, all the trappings of war should be eliminated from the web of life, both from the physical and the symbolic side. Literature and art and song should be war-sterilized, and the heroes to children should be those who have made possible the conquest of nature through invention and discovery; those who have striven for and achieved great ideals of government, of education, and of morals; and those who have advanced the lot of man by the priceless gift of adding a fact to the world's knowledge. Peace has as worthy heroes as war! As a means of invigorating ourselves through struggle and contest, we should increase the resource of sports and games; increase the struggle against natural forces.

Some day we may be intelligent enough to have the great talent of a country not at the head of armies or boards of strategy, not

in finance or industry, but at the head of the state educational systems. Backed by money and public opinion, a group of supermen may evolve a system of mechanistic training which will create in the next generation a higher degree of adaptation to environment, an increased fitness for service for countries and people. Man at last will see that his destiny is in his own hands, that there is no active supernatural power that will help or hinder his career; in fact, that his destiny in part has been determined by his evolution, and that the balance of his destiny is to be man-made here and now.

This experiment is now before us on a vast scale. Can we read it aright? Germany to-day stands as an example of the inevitableness of action-patterns. We cannot blame her, we should understand her.

Let us suppose that at this moment Canada contained a hostile population of two hundred million people, a trained army of six million, and a chain of forts along the boundary; suppose that Mexico were a rich, cultured, and brave nation of sixty million, with a deep-rooted grievance, and an iron curtain at its frontier! Suppose that Cuba were the richest nation in the world, and that she possessed and controlled one-fifth of the earth's surface, and were the undisputed mistress of the sea. Let us suppose further that these conditions had existed for forty-four years, and that during this time the action-patterns in the brains of the children of the United States had been facilitated for the killing of the surrounding rivals; that during this time the United States knew that, to defend itself, it must have efficiency and wealth, and that for the people as a whole to survive, they must renounce their personality, must surrender themselves to the state, to be used by the state, to the advantage of the state, and so, indirectly, to the advantage of the people themselves. The state being in danger, and the head of the state being responsible, the state would strive to its utmost to effect self-preservation. The people of the state, seeing themselves, as a collective mechanism, prospering beyond their rivals, would believe strongly in their system, and more and more would be willing to surrender themselves to the state, realizing that their individual labors would be more effective when guided by the highest talent of the few, the supermen, than when guided by the mediocre talent of the masses. They would see everywhere law and order, they would be cared for when sick and aged, they would receive arts and science and learning, their children would be made efficient, their nation would each year become more stable in wealth, in mass-efficiency, in armament, in science, in security of life.

In nature, such a system as this is well known and is equally efficient. It is the system of ant colonies, in which the individual ant renounces its individual reaction to the colony for the good of the colony, and ultimately for its own good. This is the *Kultur* of the ant, and an efficient

system it is, since the ant, next to man, most completely dominates the earth.

Is this a fanciful postulate? It is Germany to-day and now. German *Kultur* has been made possible only by the powerful rivals which surround her. It was obviously against this steady, hostile breeze that the ruling class of Germany flew its military kite, and transformed the action-patterns of the brains of sixty million people into those of renunciation of individualism and the acceptance of collectivism. This is obviously a *Kultur*, but can man be made to respond to this *Kultur* in the absence of powerful, threatening neighbors? Has the mechanism of the *Kultur* elements of danger to itself?

In the presence of a common danger, or a danger commonly believed to exist, a danger that threatens destruction, men and animals react along purely self-preservative lines. It is only a real danger that has transformed the German individual into a state machine, has given him the "es ist verboten" reaction. On this conception the action-patterns and the behavior of the German seem natural and expected. His action-pattern is to kill and to conquer his hostile neighbors and to preserve the German.

That the hive-and-colony reaction is not an evolved instinct with the German is shown by the fact that the children of the Germans in America are as individual as are the Americans of other stocks. They dislike "verboten" and wish to work for themselves. There are secondary phenomena of colony adaptation (*Kultur*) that now seem natural and expected. The war adaptation of Germany is seen in the duels among officers and students. It is seen in their uniform customs and manners. It is seen in their respect for authority in all walks of life, in industry, in science, in amusements.

There is ample evidence to show that, whether for good or ill, the German has reached a new adaptation, at least an adaptation new to the present cycle of history. Perhaps in bygone days this may have been a usual adaptation, but it could be made only in the presence of strong enemies. The ultimate future of the German *Kultur* may then be foreseen. By virtue of its sheer efficiency it has reached the point at which it feels itself equal to making a conquest of the world, and, like the Athenians, to enforcing its system on a subjugated world.

Treitschke and Nietzsche evolved an altruism based on force, as against the altruism of Christ, based on simple justice. Germany in arms to-day is Nietzsche's philosophy. Its advantages are startlingly obvious, but are its foundations secure? Germany will ultimately conquer or be conquered! If she is conquered, her people will believe that there is a flaw in the premises and think their sacrifice was in vain. Should Germany win, and should she conquer the world, then she would lack the fundamental motive force which created *Kultur*, viz., her hostile neighbors. She would be a kite without the breeze, a cancer that had killed the body on which it fed.

The individual Ally begins by assuming the right of the individual; the German begins by renouncing the right of the individual and recognizes only the right of the state. In that sense, to Germany the invasion of Belgium is justified, because its purpose was to further the cause of *Kultur*. The individual citizen of Belgium and the state of Belgium are isolated phenomena, while *Kultur* is a biologic principle. As Nietzsche puts it, the strong should feed on the weak and crush them when needed. The individualist opposes these views. Therefore, the individualist and the *Kulturist* estimate the invasion and the crushing of Belgium from opposite points of view, each being equally sincere in his judgment. Morals may be, after all, only expressions of biologic states, only results of action-patterns, and what would be good morals from the standpoint of a wolf would be bad morals from the standpoint of a sheep.

But again the question rises: Can a people through force be made to have action-patterns against their will? Rome never succeeded in Romanizing the world. Rome tried Belgium; Belgium is here; Rome has passed. Napoleon failed, the Moors failed, England never assimilated the Irish or the Scotch, Russia the Poles, or the Manchus the Chinese. England has learned by a large experience over a considerable period of time that subject races cannot be altered by force. Germany has not succeeded in extending her doctrine of centralizing force into her colonies; force creates action-patterns in opposition to, not in consonance with, that force. A people may be brutalized into formal submission, but brutal treatment results in creating in the brains of the children the strongest action-patterns of opposition and of hatred. The conquering enemy can never supplant the influence of the hating mother who plants action-patterns in the brains of her children when the shades are drawn.

IV.

Turning from biologic speculation, let me in conclusion briefly refer to a fact which I believe will impress every one as it impressed me. Paris is in Zeppelin darkness! One day I kept a professional appointment in one of a certain group of buildings. I lost my way in the great darkened structures and wandered from floor to floor, building to building, until at last I encountered an aged servant who showed me to the room where I found the great Metchnikoff!

This building was the famous Pasteur Institute. Before the war from ninety to one hundred scientists were here engaged in research!

The next day I visited the Sorbonne, whose intellectual activity of other days was now represented by a small group of military discards. No less deserted must be the famous seats of learning of Germany, Austria, Russia, and measurably of England. The brains holding the germs of mighty truths are enriching the soil of the far-flung battle-lines to-day.

Notes from the Capital

THE CHAIRMAN OF THE SENATE'S COMMITTEE ON FOREIGN RELATIONS.

In former emergencies like our controversy with Germany, one of the first questions in every one's mind was as to what manner of man the Senate had for chairman of its Committee on Foreign Relations. At such a time this committee stands in more intimate association with the President than any other, even including the Military and Naval Affairs and Appropriations Committees, its functions being of almost equal delicacy with those of the Department of State. Upon its chairman devolves largely the duty of planning its programme of work; and as its spokesman on the floor his intelligence, tact, persuasiveness, and skill in debate count for so much that for the moment he becomes to all intents the leader of the Senate. These facts and conditions lend just now an uncommon interest to the personality of William J. Stone, of Missouri.

The stranger who sees Stone for the first time and knows nothing of his antecedents would find it hard to locate him on the map of human activities. Clothe him in solemn black, with a white tie and a wide-awake hat, and you find him the typical country parson of the Southwest. Crown him with nattier headgear and exchange the white tie for one less definitely ministerial, and you have a suggestion of the professor from some rural college. In a gray summer business suit and a Fedora, he turns into a prosperous village or small-town magnate, perhaps the local banker who holds mortgages galore on the neighboring farms and shaves notes artistically. The slight stoop in the shoulders, the thin, compressed lips, and the long, insinuating nose, seen in profile, give him the air of a man who is perpetually looking for something; but if you are curious to know what it is, your inquisitiveness is baffled by the eyes, which are gray, and as expressionless as those of an Egyptian sphinx. They reveal not a hint of what is going on in the brain behind them. In combination with their drooping lids, they give you rather the effect of drowsiness and indifference; and you are always astonished when, in the midst of a forensic battle, in which their owner has made no sign of special interest, you hear him, in a voice nasal in quality, but crisp and incisive as befits a cross-examiner, sticking a question into a member of the opposition, or passing an enigmatic comment on something said.

Stone is a lawyer, and has the reputation of being a pretty clever one. Certainly, if ability to draw what he wishes from an adversary but avoid telling anything himself entitles its possessor to rank at the bar, Stone belongs among the notables. In Congress he employs this faculty with effect in handling witnesses before his committee, but he gains his fame for shrewdness at the expense of recognition as a leader. The spectacle of Stone heading a crusade or directing an aggressive campaign would hardly fit into the imagination of any one familiar with his methods. He will always be an interesting human riddle, but never the embodiment of a positive maxim.

In nearly all close-contested cases, where a count of noses precedes a division in the Senate, Stone's is one of those the prophets find most difficulty in placing. He appears to be weighing the evidence like a judge down to

the last moment, and such utterances as he vouchsafes are liable to more than one interpretation. This peculiarity does not appear to be due to a deliberate purpose to conceal the operations of his mind or mystify the public, but is as much a part of the man's composition as Jones's humor or Smith's cynicism: his business is his own—why encourage others to meddle with it? His non-advertising habit, conserved in the midst of a group of men who are often given to airing their opinions in advance, and trying to force conclusions by assuming an attitude of domination, has won for him among his slangy critics the title of "Gum-Shoe Bill." They assert that he accomplishes his ends by keeping so quiet about them that nobody guesses where he is or what he is doing until he bobs up suddenly in the least suspected quarter and makes off with the prize. That, they say, is the secret of his long prominence in the Democratic politics of his State, in spite of Folk's insurgency.

What Stone will have to face now, however, are not questions of domestic party tactics, but the foreign problems of a great nation. It is a fairly safe prediction that, like Bryan on the companion ship, he will lapse ere long from helmsman to first assistant; for no one who has watched him of late can have failed to note his recognition of the fact that it is the President who commands the fleet, and that it is to be handled practically as a unit. Another safe prediction is that Stone will not be required to put forth so much effort as some of his predecessors on the once important duty of acting as the defender of the Administration in the Senate: the popular confidence Mr. Wilson has succeeded in inspiring, and his uncommon gift for setting forth his own case in terms within the comprehension of the least subtle of minds, will leave few gaps in that line, if any, for the Delphic Stone to fill.

VIEILLARD.

Correspondence

PRELIMINARY SUMMARY OF FINDINGS ON CONDITIONS AT UTAH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Committee of Inquiry of the American Association of University Professors, appointed to report upon conditions at the University of Utah which have led to the resignation of seventeen members of the University faculty, regrets to announce that it will be unable to publish its complete report at so early a date as the Committee had anticipated. The delay is due to the fact that certain friends of the University inform the Committee that they now hope to be able, if given some additional time, to present evidence in support of the charge that one of the recently dismissed professors had "worked against the administration." Although repeated efforts have heretofore been made, without success, to elicit this evidence, the Committee is unwilling to reach a decision upon this point until every reasonable opportunity has been given for the production of all available testimony.

Pending a decision upon this and one other matter, the Committee, in view of its promise of early publication, thinks it incumbent upon it to state briefly the conclusions it has al-

ready reached, after careful inquiry, in regard to the other features of the case. The full report, to be printed later, will present and analyze the evidence in *extenso*.

The Committee has had before it, in addition to all documents already published, a large mass of affidavits, written statements, and replies from both the majority and the minority of the Board of Regents, from the president of the University, and from other persons, to a series of questions bearing upon many aspects of the case. The Committee desires to acknowledge the courtesy with which both the personal inquiries of its representative while in Salt Lake City, and subsequent written communications, have been responded to by the president and regents, the dismissed members of the faculty, those who have resigned, and others concerned.

The findings of the Committee follow, decision upon two points being reserved:

I. With regard to the nature of the grounds given by the president as his reasons for recommending the dismissal of certain professors on March 17 last, the Committee finds as follows:

(1.) Of the four charges brought against these professors, two specify acts—namely (a) uttering in a private conversation with a colleague an unfavorable opinion of the chairman of the Board of Regents, and (b) speaking, in private conversation, in "a very uncomplimentary way of the University administration"—which are not proper grounds for the dismissal of University teachers.

(2.) The president of the University and the chairman of the Board of Regents, by sanctioning the recent action and publication of the Board, virtually gave notice that the expression by a professor, in private conversation, of an unfavorable judgment of their qualifications for office would be a ground for dismissal. This attitude, unjustifiable in general, the Committee regards as especially unsuitable in officials of a State university.

II. With regard to the procedure followed by the president and the Board of Regents in the recent dismissals, the Committee finds as follows:

(1.) The president, in the case of the principal and only significant charge* against Professor Knowlton, accepted as true, without investigation, the confidential statements of private informants; he at no time permitted the professor concerned to know the names of his accusers; and he presented the charge to the Board of Regents, and also published it, after receiving a sweeping denial of the truth of the charge from the professor in question, and without examining the other evidence offered him by this professor as proof of the falsity of the charge.

(2.) The Board accepted the president's recommendation for the dismissal of this professor without knowing the source of the principal accusation against him, or the nature of the evidence upon which it was based.

(3.) This procedure of the governing body of the University appears to have been due to a principle of policy which, both at the time of the dismissals and subsequently, it has publicly enunciated. In a statement of April 7, 1915, the Board expressed this principle by saying that, in cases of such serious disagreement as the president reported to exist between himself and certain professors, "the Board is not concerned to know who is right and who is wrong in this disagreement," but

only to determine the relative value of the services of those concerned, and to eliminate from the University those whose services it believes to be less valuable. This, in the light thrown upon its practical meaning by the recent action of the Board, the Committee can construe only as an announcement that considerations of equity were not taken account of by the Board at the time of the recent dismissals, and that, so long as the Board adheres to this principle, such considerations will not be taken account of, in cases involving the relations of the president of the University and the faculty.

(4.) The Board has, however, given two irreconcilable versions of its attitude, at the time of the dismissals, towards the request for a public and searching investigation of the charges. The first version is that the president had recommended the dismissal of the professors in question, and had threatened to resign his office if his recommendation was not adopted; that in these circumstances, and in view of the Board's acceptance of the above-mentioned principle, "no judicial or other investigation" could "change or obviate the fact" upon which the Board based its decision; and that, as the Board declared on March 17, in a reply to a petition of certain alumni, it "refused to be forced into a public or any investigation." The other version is that opportunity for an investigation was actually offered the professors accused, and was rejected. The Committee finds that, though the professors accused were invited to appear at a meeting of the Board, no thorough and public investigation, such as had been asked for, has ever been made, either by the president or by the Board of Regents.

(5.) The Board now appears to regard either two or three of the charges as "not constituting proper grounds for terminating a professor's connection with the University." It has also received through this Committee the sworn statement of the professor against whom the fourth charge was made, categorically denying the truth of the charge. The Board had, nevertheless, refused to reopen the cases of the professors against whom these charges were brought.

III. In its "Public Statement" of March 17, issued in explanation of the dismissals, the Board of Regents defined the limits of freedom of speech in the University in a way which alone was sufficient to give any member of the faculty an adequate reason for resigning forthwith. A part of the statement referred to is as follows:

It is argued to the Board that professors and instructors should have the right of free thought, free speech, and free action. This cannot be and is not questioned. The Board, however, has the same rights. These privileges are reciprocal. When the rights of the two clash, then it is for the Board to determine which is right and which course serves, or is inimical to, the best interests of the University. Some one must have the right and responsibility to decide such matters, and the law has vested it in the Board. Professor Wise, for instance, has seen fit to belittle the University and to speak in an uncomplimentary way about the administration. That is his privilege. It is also the right and privilege of the president and Board to say that his course is wrong and to refuse longer to employ him. Professor Wise may then go to another institution and State, where his views and those of the governing Board may coincide, if there is any place where an employee is permitted to belittle the institution that employs him and to criticize its management unjustly.

Dr. Knowlton has seen fit to speak very

*That of "working against the administration."

disrespectfully, if not insultingly, of the chairman of the Board of Regents. From his standpoint this doubtless means that he has exercised his inalienable rights of free thought, free speech, and free action. But the president and the Board also have an equal right to free thought, free speech, and free action, with the result that the president and Board do not agree with Dr. Knowlton's sentiments; he may hereafter find an institution and State where similar sentiments against the presiding officer of the governing board may be approved. If so, that is where he belongs.

IV. One of the causes of the resignation of members of the University faculty was the existence of conditions before March 17, such that the faculty had no proper means of bringing its views on University matters—when its views differed from those of the president—to the notice of the governing body. It was, in the opinion of the resigning professors, partly in consequence of these conditions that the Board, on March 17, took action which those professors regarded as unjust to individuals and injurious to the interests of the University. Since the resignations, the Board has adopted radical and excellently conceived alterations in the plan of administration of the University; these changes should give the University of Utah an exceptionally advanced position among American colleges, in respect to provision for consultation between faculty and trustees. The Committee hopes that great good will result from these modifications of the University's administrative machinery; it feels constrained, however, to reserve final judgment as to the actual effect of the plans until their working under local conditions has been tested by experience. The Committee deeply regrets that the Board has refused to apply its new procedure at once to the cases which have recently come before it. The Committee deems itself bound, in simple justice, to note that the credit for whatever benefits may accrue to the University from the reforms mentioned, must be given primarily to the professors who by their resignations made effective protest against the antecedent conditions certain of which these reforms are designed to correct.

V. The Committee finds evidence that, under the present administration of the University, there has existed a tendency to repress legitimate utterances (on the part of both faculty and students) upon religious, political, or economic questions, when such utterances were thought likely to arouse the disapproval of influential persons or organizations, and thus to affect unfavorably the amount of the University's appropriations. The conditions resulting from this tendency seem to the Committee extremely unwholesome. The Committee does not find evidence, however, that this policy has led to the dismissal of any professor.

VI. The Committee finds it to be established by sufficient evidence that the Governor of the State (who is not a member of the Board of Regents) brought pressure upon the University authorities to have them curb or discipline any teachers who had passed unfavorably upon the speech of the class valedictorian of 1914—the speech containing certain sentiments of which the Governor disapproved. One of the teachers, and the only one of subordinate rank, who had thus passed upon the speech, was among the men dismissed on March 17. The Committee has, however, received no conclusive evidence con-

necting the dismissal with the Governor's activities.

VII. For the charge that sectarian religious influence, or the desire of the administration to placate a certain religious body, was responsible for certain appointments, and for the demotion of a professor long in the service of the University, some circumstantial evidence is laid before the Committee; but the Committee does not find this evidence such as to enable it to judge of the motives of the president and the Board of Regents in making these appointments and this demotion.

VIII. One of the gravest and most regrettable features of the crisis at this University, in the Committee's opinion, is the attitude still maintained by the Board of Regents towards numerous petitions asking for a thorough public investigation of the recent incidents and of general University conditions. These petitions, which have come from the faculty, the Alumni Association, the students, and a large number of citizens of the State of Utah, the Board has in all cases rejected, declaring that it alone is responsible for the management of the University, that it has no doubts as to the correctness of its past action and the rectitude of its own motives and those of the president, and that it therefore cannot permit its action to be influenced by protests coming from others. This position seems to the Committee to show that the Board fails to understand, or at least to act upon, three fundamental facts: namely, that every institution of public education, and especially a State university, requires for its success the confidence and respect of the public; that there can be no sure hold upon public confidence without an unflinching readiness to face publicity in regard to all official acts and policies; and that the only effective way in which any public body can meet serious charges brought by responsible persons is by not merely permitting, but demanding a searching and open inquiry into its methods. The Committee gathers that the attitude taken by the Board has aroused on the part of a large section of the local public, including a majority of the alumni and of the students, a degree of suspicion, and even hostility, which must be a continuing detriment to the University's efficiency as an instrument of public education, and must affect disadvantageously the position and the work of teachers in the institution.

These findings are concurred in by all the members of the Committee of Inquiry who have been able to examine the evidence bearing upon the points dealt with in this preliminary report.

E. R. A. SELIGMAN, Chairman,
Columbia University.
JOHN DEWEY,
Columbia University.
FRANK FETTER,
Princeton University.
J. P. LICHTENBERGER,
University of Pennsylvania.
A. O. LOVEJOY,
Johns Hopkins University.
H. C. WARREN,
Princeton University.

OBJECTIONS TO THE DIRECT PRIMARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the issue of your paper of April 29 you comment interestingly on the New York Legislature of 1915. Is not such a Legislature

as you describe the natural result of the direct primaries?

I have watched with interest the workings of the law in Massachusetts and have noted:

1. That many competent men decline to become candidates under the law.
2. That incompetent and unfit men have been greatly encouraged to seek office, and often are elected.
3. That the law gives an advantage to unscrupulous and self-seeking candidates.
4. That the power of lobbyists and professional politicians has been much increased by the law.

5. That candidates not desired, either by the leaders of the party or by a majority of its members, may be forced on the party by a minority or by those of another party.

6. That many citizens are much disturbed over the situation, but feel that they are powerless under the law.

Is there any way to obtain strong men in our Legislature under the direct primary law? If not, ought not the law to be either amended or repealed?

A. H. WELLMAN.

Boston, May 11.

[There is undoubtedly force in some of these objections to the direct primary; but it cannot be said that they derive any confirmation either from the record of the New York Legislature or from comments on that record, since there is no reason to regard that body as notably worse than its predecessors of recent years.—ED. THE NATION.]

THE DEATH OF CIVILIZATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In these days the phrase—the thought—that the victory of Germany would be the death of civilization repeats itself constantly on every lip, in every mind. Yet what is the meaning of the words? To us, now, "civilization" stands, rightly, chiefly, for individual liberty controlled by just laws decreed by the people; if that indeed may be murdered. But in the wider significance which we also attribute to the concept, to speak of the death of civilization is open to question. Do we not recognize that there is no one civilization which dying leaves the world uncivilized, but that there have been and always will be different civilizations of this and that age, of this and that country? Civilization comes to one and another part of the world in great waves of illumination. The truths it makes evident often possess only a temporary life. Time brings night again here; a new day, with a different civilization, dawns there.

While therefore we clearly see the appalling loss to the world of the essential privileges of civilization if the ideals of Germany were to become dominant, I think we may believe that the base of our mental activity cannot be done away with by any circumstances. Our inheritance is secure of the intellectual achievement of our forefathers, and of their scientific discoveries. Our minds could long be sufficiently nourished by these, without new achievements or more discoveries. I think we may believe that forms of civilization other than those familiar to us would make their appearance, and that we can even now see the promise of them and feel that many of them are at hand, in any event.

The world-horrors of this war are such an influence for world-peace as has never been

felt before; while the great companionships of the war have created a fuller recognition than before of universal human kinship. The barriers between nations, between rich and poor, between the learned and the ignorant, between any "class" and any other, have been broken down by the common sufferings and the common efforts, and will not—cannot—be built up again as they were; the sense of human brotherhood is immediately strengthened.

Were this all, it would be much; but with this change comes another, of high import, due to the great diminution of wealth. Our children must needs live a much more restricted life than we have done, and consequently a more reasonable and more thoughtful one. The struggling rush, the intolerable hurry both of our business hours and of our social hours, our habitual worry, our physical exhaustion, our unsoundness of mind, our frivolities, our licentiousness, we may hope are things of the past. With more limited possibilities will come more contentment and more quietness, and with quietness more enjoyment of intellectual pleasures. Even German "Kultur" would not be able to put an end to reading, and no human power could stop men from writing. We shall have less occasion to telephone messages; we shall, as of old, send friendly letters. We shall once more know what conversation is when we talk as we shall long have opportunity to talk about matters of serious interest. We shall be induced to have homes, not merely to eat and sleep at home.

Far deeper than even these hopes which are of so much moment to us, lies the vision to which we are too often blind—of the inconceivable millions of generations of mankind that have preceded us; a vision which reveals to us our world as the starry skies reveal the universe, and declares that a thousand years are as a day. G. N.

Cambridge, Mass., May 20.

FRENCH WAR SONGS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of January 14, you quote snatches of contemporary French war poetry. Some of your readers may be interested in the source of the verses "celebrating the French artillery" ("Chantons le soixant' quinze"). The lines are a slight variation on the chorus of one of the national songs of France, first sung in 1792:

"Madam' Veto avait promis
De faire égorger tout Paris.
Mais le coup a manqué,
Grâce à nos canonniers.
Dansons la carmagnole,
Vive le son! vive le son!
Dansons la carmagnole,
Vive le son du canon!"

and so forth for thirteen stanzas.

The "carmagnole," which has given its name to the chanson, is a sort of short coat, worn, according to Larousse, by laborers from Carmagnola in Piedmont. Brought to Paris by the troops of Marseilles, it was adopted by the revolutionists. Madame Veto of 1792 was the Austrian princess, Marie Antoinette.

Let us hope that the canonniers of 1915 may prove worthy of their forebears.

BENJ. M. WOODBRIDGE.

Austin, Tex., February 20.

MATTHEW ARNOLD'S PROPHECY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Amid the welter of comment on the German mind and temper, in letters to the press, I do not observe that any one has as yet quoted the admirable remark of a most distinguished social critic, Matthew Arnold, in his delightful series of letters entitled "Friendship's Garland." Somewhere in the series he makes that amiable, if frank, young Prussian nobleman, Baron Arminius von Thunder-ten-Tronckh, give utterance to these memorable sentiments: "I have no love for the preaching old drill-sergeant who is called King of Prussia, or for the audacious conspirator who pulls his wires. . . . I believe no country of Europe is so fitted to be a republic as Germany; I believe her difficulties are from her Hohenzollerns and Hapsburgs, and nothing else. I believe she will end by getting rid of these gentry; and that till that time comes the world will never know of what real greatness she is capable."

In another passage Arminius observes that "what unites and separates people now is *Geist* (intelligence)." Let us hope that, with a little more *Geist*, the German people will not long be separated from the American!

HARRY T. BAKER.

New York, May 20.

Literature

CAPT. BRINKLEY'S HISTORY OF THE JAPANESE.

A History of the Japanese People: From the Earliest Times to the End of the Meiji Era. By Capt. F. Brinkley, R.A., with the collaboration of Baron Kikuchi, formerly president of the Imperial University of Kioto. New York and London: The Encyclopædia Britannica Co. \$3.50.

This handy volume, light on the wrist and yet extending to nearly 800 pages of closely packed matter, is a miracle of book craftsmanship. The 150 illustrations, engraved on wood by Japanese artists, as well as the sixteen full-page half-tones, are attractive and illuminating. If one slight improvement might be suggested, why not in every case have the illustration deal with the period? At page 549 there is a cut, "Green Room of a Theatre," which is out of its century and setting. The other cut in the chapter, "Anjin-Zuka, Near Yokosuka, the Tomb of Will Adams," is harmonious.

The collaborator, Baron Kikuchi, in a modest preface, rightly states that it would have been difficult to find any one better fitted than the late Capt. Brinkley for the task of writing a history of Japan that should deal sympathetically and satisfactorily with the many knotty subjects involved, such as the relation of the Imperial dynasty to the people, the family system, the position of Buddhism, the influence of Confucianism. Grandson of the astronomer Brinkley, and an Irishman by birth and descent, Capt. Frank Brinkley received his early training in the Royal Artillery, and first visited Japan in the late sixties as

one of the British Legation Guards. Attracted by the country, he became a resident, and made a thorough study of her language and civilization. For several years he was professor of mathematics in the Imperial College of Engineering, Tokio, founded by the efforts of the Minister of the now defunct Department Works, Ito Hirobumi, later the great Prince Ito. He was a man of forty when he took in hand the editing at Yokohama of a daily and weekly which should present to the world the reasonable claims of Japan, then but curiously treated in the foreign press of the settlements. Gathering around him a number of able men at the Japanese capital, he made the *Japan Mail* in a few years confessedly the ablest journal east of Calcutta. With a staff by no means necessarily harmonious in their methods or conclusions, he practiced an impartiality that often approached inconsistency; but he was determinedly irenic. When American residents grumbled at apparent British unfairness in handling things American, he turned over all moot questions to so good an American as the late H. W. Denison, who represented Japan in drafting the treaty of peace at Portsmouth. "And yet," as he remarked to the reviewer, "the complaints of bias continued all the same."

Before writing the many-volumed "Japan" (1901), by which he is best known to readers, he had published a Japanese Grammar and Conversation Book and also a novel, "The Times of the Taira," dealing with the early feudal period. His acquaintance with the arts, industries, customs, and traditions of the country was intimate. Consequently, when a new edition of the great Encyclopædia Britannica was projected, no writer was deemed so fit for the handling of the article "Japan." High as was the general level of the ninth edition, it had yet a slight and unequal article on the island kingdom. The richness and fulness of its successor have led the publishers to expand it into the present History; and the public is to be congratulated.

The author did not long survive the publication of the article, and the duty of giving the History its final touches has fallen on an ex-Minister of Education, who was trained at Cambridge University. The combination leaves the outlook entirely British-Japanese. The book is dedicated to the Emperor whose reign was synchronous with Brinkley's long residence in Japan. The dedication to one who is dead is in full accord with Japanese custom, for with them the dead are invoked as if still alive.

In view of the training and associations of both author and collaborator, we may expect the History to be at once cautious, courtly, and conservative. Oddly enough, it is impossible to treat the early history of the nation without reference to modern discussions that have a legal bearing. Are the Japanese to be classed as Mongolians, or can they claim an origin that differentiates them from Chinese and Koreans? Their mythology must be treated tactfully,

for, as is stated at page 33, "though many learned Japanese commentators have sought to rationalize the events described in the *Records* and the *Chronicles*, the great bulk of the nation believes in the literal accuracy of these works as profoundly as the great bulk of the Anglo-Saxon people believe in the Bible, its cosmogony, and its miracles."

The Japanese euhemerist to-day has to take into account certain accepted facts. In the first place, the deeper the grammarian's examination of Korean, the closer appears its relationship to Japanese. The aboriginal Ainu, who have left surprisingly little trace on the Japanese people, seem to be akin to the Russian peasant, and to have had a European origin, arriving possibly by way of Sakhalin from the Amur River. The more their language is studied, the less does it appear allied to Japanese; and consequently the attempt made to recognize in the Ainu the "primal ancestors" of the Japanese (*vid. Griffiths, "The Mikado's Empire,"* ch. II) finds little favor to-day. Consequently, the Tsu and Iki islands, those stepping-stones to the Korean peninsula, must be regarded as the probable route by which the main body of the people now occupying Japan entered from the continent. Yet still another port of entry has to be considered, that from the south by way of the Kuro-shio, the dark ocean current which comes from the tropics and skirts the southern and eastern shores of the Japanese islands. Possible immigration by this source might explain peculiar qualities found in the Japanese type, in their susceptibilities, in their language. For instance, the virile and more hirsute mariner stock appearing in the southern island of Kyushu, the insistent desire of the people to have white skins and to be regarded as a white race, the grammatical order and structure of the Japanese sentence, all demand explanation.

The rationalizing of the somewhat fantastic national legends would, according to Brinkley, show the arrival from the south by way of the Black Current of a band of immigrants, who, finally landing at Awaji island to the east of the Inland Sea, crossed to the larger island of Shikoku and thence proceeded west to Kyushu, the home of the Kumaso barbarians. Were these Kumaso akin to the Sow of Borneo, as similar customs would indicate, and had they also come originally by way of the Black Current? Brinkley regards this theory of their origin as the most plausible offered. He supposes that the new invaders, after circling the west coast as far as the island of Sado, finally settled down at Yamato, close to the Kii promontory, which became thenceforth the home of the race, where stood Takama-ga-hara, the "Plains of Heaven." The traditions would then indicate a subjugation of the main island as far as Idzumo, another sacred locality. Subsequent wars and troubles led to the exile of a band of Yamato men, who took refuge in Korea. As the sword of Susanoo, the leader of this band, bore the name Orochi-

no-Kara-suki, Kara being a Japanese word for Korea, and as six shrines in the province of Idzumo begin with the term Kara-kuni, or "Korea-land"—in addition to indications of close commercial intercourse—there is good reason for concluding that an important element of the Japanese nation came from or through Korea, by way of Idzumo.

It may be, indeed, that the original Yamato men came from central Asia by way of the Bay of Bengal and southern China. A recent article by a Japanese scholar strives to show that there is a close similarity between the grammatical structure of Japanese and Hindustani. In any case, there is another landing to account for, which in the legends takes the form of a descent on Mount Kirishima, in Kyushu, of Ninigi, grandson of the sun-goddess Amaterasu, and direct ancestor of Jimmu-Tenno, first Emperor of Japan. The *Records* might be understood to imply that Ninigi came from the Plains of Heaven in Yamato, where he was hard pressed, and took refuge in the southern island. But the Plains of Heaven may refer to China, in which case the mythical hero might be a Chinese prince, Tai-Peh, who was disinherited by his father and crossed over to Japan in the year 800 B. C. Ethnologists allow for frequent crossings and re-crossings from the Asiatic mainland.

We have a consensus that the higher classes in Japan, descendants of the Yamato, belong to the Manchu-Korean type, having slender figures, elongated faces with not very prominent cheek-bones, more or less slanting eyes, receding chins, long trunks, thin limbs, and often long fingers, while the hair on the face and body is scarce. Yet, while this is the recognized aristocratic type in art, Chinese and Korean, as well as Japanese, members of the imperial family are of the heavier Satsuma build, suggesting more the type of the Pacific islander represented by the Maoris of New Zealand. Can it be (*vid. Murdoch, "History of Japan,"* Vol. I, page 49) that the legend of Mt. Kirishima is to be referred to the arrival by the Black Current of warlike islanders from the far south? Courtiers would not favor such a solution, and Brinkley makes no mention of it; but there is much in its favor. He would look more favorably upon an Iranian origin. Others, patriotic Japanese, claiming for their land a Greek-like supremacy in art, hint at an immigration from western Asia; and a Mr. T. Kimura has recently published two bulky volumes entitled "The Japanese a Greco-Latin-Egyptian Race."

The important thirty-seventh chapter, entitled Christianity in Japan, opens inauspiciously with an inadequate handling of the remarkable personality of Francis Xavier, and fails throughout to recognize the new attitude of the West to the Orient, since Hawaii and the Philippines came under the American flag. Conquered from Mexico, these islands of the Sunset (*Islas del Poniente*) remained for centuries an appanage of New Spain. So to-day Japan has become to us

the Land of the Evening rather than the Land of the Morning, and her career is essentially linked to that of the Philippines. When Gall, in 1584, discovered the advantages of the trade route by way of the Black Current of Japan, complications at once arose with the Japanese authorities. History is repeating itself to-day, when there is friction between our Pacific Coast and our nearest neighbor across the Pacific. During the past decade and a half, American scholars, in an examination of the Spanish colonial archives, have brought much to light regarding relations between New Spain and Japan. But no use whatever is apparent throughout this chapter of the labors of Blair, Robertson, Richman, and others. Indeed, at page 547, there is a reference to a Mexican mariner, Sebastian, which is not so up-to-date as Murdoch's, who, in the second volume of his history which preceded the first and appeared twelve years ago, while calling him in the text Sebastian, following Charlevoix, remarks in a footnote that his real name was Sebastian Vizcaino. A full account of this adventurer is given in the second chapter of Richman's "California under Spain and Mexico," published four years ago. He was sent as admiral on board the galleon San Francisco, which in the year 1611 carried Don Rodrigo Sotomayor as ambassador from King Philip III to the "Emperor" of Japan, really the Shogun. Brinkley is correct in stating that the envoy obtained permission for a survey of the Japanese coast, and that Sebastian and a friar, Sotelo, "hastened to carry out this project," which, by the way, took them about two years. But he does not give the important fact that the survey was a pretext for a hunt after Gold and Silver Islands, which for two centuries after 1565, when they were first reported to Friar Urdaneta, filled the imagination of adventurous mariners in Pacific waters. They were supposed to lie nine days to the westward of Oshiu, in Japan, and to be rich in precious metals, silks, and clothing. Vizcaino obtained his commission from King Philip largely because of the many disasters which had occurred to vessels engaged in the Acapulco-Manila trade, and the frequent awkward necessity of putting into Japanese ports to refit. Before the Government of New Spain settled on Monterey, in California, as the first point of call for vessels crossing the Pacific, it was deemed prudent to discover whether the Rica de Plata and Rica de Oro Islands might not serve the purpose better. It is strange that Hawaii, which lay so conveniently in between, was to remain unknown for nearly two centuries longer. Needless to say, Vizcaino failed to locate the islands, but Rica de Oro survives to-day as an alternate name for Lot's Wife, an island situated in east longitude 140°, north latitude 30°, not far from the steamship route from Yokohama to Honolulu. The chapter is defective in giving no information regarding the activities, three centuries ago, of Japanese adventurers and emigrants in Siam, Manila, and the South Sea Islands, where many were massacred by the Dutch at Amboyna, when in English employ. Indeed, it

requires strengthening throughout to keep in touch with American historical investigation to-day, stimulated by the problem of the Philippines and the vision of a new Pacific.

The closing fifty pages, which deal with modern expansive Japan in a masterly way, limit their discussion mostly to the political, diplomatic, and military situation. The author was well acquainted with China, a subject on which he has written a book, "Japan and China." His summary of the present international situation as it affects the United States is of particular interest. "Meanwhile, the United States of America," he says on his penultimate page, "is gradually constituting itself the guardian of China's integrity in Manchuria, and the citizens of the Pacific slope, under the influence of the labor question, are writing and speaking as though war between the great republic and the Far Eastern Empire were an inevitable outcome of the future. This chimera is unthinkable by any one really familiar with the trend of Japanese sentiment, but it may encourage in China a dangerous mood, and it helps always to foster an unquiet feeling."

CURRENT FICTION.

Daybreak. By Elizabeth Miller. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

Prince and Heretic. By Marjorie Bowen. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

Marriage by Conquest. By Warwick Deeping. New York: McBride, Nast & Co.

These stories are all good examples of their kind. It is a kind in which to be absurd is easy and to transcend mediocrity difficult. Melodrama lurks by the wayside, and fusion lays its pitfalls. Toil of the lamp must go before, and must thereafter be concealed. The attempt to give form and speech to the shadows of great names is full of peril. Socrates and Charlemagne, Shakespeare and Michelangelo, are not willingly put through their paces by twentieth-century exhibitors. The author of "Daybreak" "takes chances" in putting upon her scene such figures as Ferdinand and Isabella, above all, such a figure as Columbus. There are, of course, romantic characters to take the foreground of the action and lift the strain from the reader's attention. The chief two are Beltran Ponce de Leon, knight and engineer of Ferdinand, and Antonia, a "knightly maid" in Isabella's train. She is of great wealth, and Ferdinand wishes, for state reasons, to wed her to the Conde de Lerin, Lord of Navarre. Antonia is not indisposed to the match until, at the same moment, her official lover and young Ponce de Leon arrive at the Spanish court; when she soon discovers de Lerin to be a worldly trifler, and Ponce de Leon to be—all that he should be. The story opens just before the fall of Granada, and closes upon Colon's return, with Ponce de Leon, who, by a turn of chance, has accompanied him in the Santa Maria to Spain and glory; and, needless to say, upon the triumphant union of the young pair. The book is not guiltless of passages

of merely picturesque and eloquent writing, and the story does not carry the reader along in spite of himself. The toil of the lamp is not sufficiently concealed.

Some years ago, while but a girl, "Marjorie Bowen" won a prize for an historical novel, with "The Viper of Milan." Since then she has produced a succession of tales in this kind, all well studied and done, if rather upon the high horse, with a good deal of spirit. "Prince and Heretic" is a story of the Netherlands under Philip; and William, Prince of Orange, is the central figure. The writer has some success in detaching him from the dim frame of legend and giving him form and color, if not life. The narrative begins with his marriage to wretched little Anne of Saxony, and traces his development from the high-spirited cavalier, who permitted himself to be led into that absurd alliance, to the grave and capable statesman and leader of a desperate cause. The present narrative brings him only to the close of his first struggle with the power of Spain, when, defeated and impoverished, he set out with his two brothers and a handful of followers to offer his sword to Condé and the Protestant cause in France. "So, stripped even of fame and glory, laughed at by his enemies, despaired of by his friends, did he, who had been one of the greatest and most magnificent princes of his time, ride into exile." This is, perhaps, first member of the trilogy; some continuation of the story is certainly to be looked for, if only to explain the outcome of the Prince's relation to his unhappy wife, and to Renée, the beautiful handmaiden who might be so worthy a mate for her mistress's titular husband. The style tends rather too deliberately towards picturesqueness; too many figures are sequestered for the purpose of bathing them in a high golden light, too many scenes are colored bright red by wine, gems, or blood.

Mr. Warwick Deeping is one of the most active living practitioners of the costume novel. He has now written nearly a score of romances, covering a wide range of place and time—old Rome, mediæval Brittany, the Wales of Uther. He always has a story to tell, and goes ahead with it. The other novels in this group are, in spots at least, sluggish going: "Marriage by Conquest" abides by the first rule of pure romance in requiring no conscious effort of the auditor. If the reader who opens this book lays it down without external cause, or forgets to finish it, he must be a crusty and disenchanted person. The scene is rural Sussex, of a century past or longer. The hero, John Flambard, with the taste and training of a scholar, unexpectedly becomes heir to an estate in a neighborhood which is a nest of old-school squiredom. In that neighborhood dwells also a beautiful widow, to whom a wicked baronet, with the competent name of Sir Richard Heron, lays violent siege. Mrs. Stella has been married to one brute and does not care for another; she is nevertheless in danger until the coming of Flambard, who has sufficient positive attraction for her to set her beyond the power of Heron. Of course,

the two clash; Flambard is luckily not only scholar but athlete, a sort of bookish John Ridd. And as he is evidently destined by his author to come out ahead in the long run, the contest is no more distressing than a romantic contest should be. Between Heron and Flambard, first on one side and then on the other, is the rout of country squires, dull, hard-drinking, hard-riding, with their sporting parson to suit, a group out of Fielding or Hogarth—or more justly, perhaps, out of one of Rowlandson's gross plates, say, from "The Dance of Death."

A CONCERT OF STATES.

The War and Democracy. By A. E. Zimmermann and Others. New York: The Macmillan Co. 80 cents net.

This is in many ways one of the most interesting books produced by Englishmen during the present war. It is the serious attempt of a group of men belonging to the most advanced wing of the Liberal party to state the cause of their whole-hearted support of Great Britain. It is the more important as an expression of opinion since the writers have been prominently identified with what is thus far the most successful English experiment in democratic education—the Worker's Educational Association. As an earnest propagandist attempt directed at this body it is likely to be read by much of what is best in the world of English labor.

The volume opens with an admirably clear definition by Mr. Zimmermann of the real issue. He points out that what actually has happened is the failure of a movement to lay a political world-state alongside its analogues of a world-society and a world-industry. He argues that the failure is due to a disregard of foundations. The new Europe must, he says, "carry to victory the twin principles of Nationality and Democracy," by uniting not individuals or groups of individuals, but nations and the federations of nations. Germany must be fought, because, as wedded to a bureaucratic militarism, she stands in the way of such endeavors.

If the new world-state is to be based on nationality, we must clearly define our terms. Mr. Dover Wilson accordingly discusses in a tolerably clear, if not very original, chapter the growth of national sentiment in the nineteenth century. Nationality for him is essentially a developmental idea, the conception of a people "consciously united by race, language, and culture," using the government under which it lives as "a true expression of its peculiar genius and will." He urges that the present conflagration is evidence of a deep discontent in Europe with the existing political structure and a determination on the part of the dispossessed nationalities to return to their inheritance. Mr. Zimmermann then discusses modern Germany, and the chapters are in some ways the best in the book. They are terse and vivid. He knows the Germany of Heine and Fichte and Wilamowitz no less than the Germany of Bismarck and von

Bulow, and from them both he synthesizes the German mind. He explains the yearning for empire, the failure of German Social-Democracy. Above all, he does not place this war to the credit either of Nietzsche or of Treitschke; he sees that far more important is the system of education which makes the all-pervading state the end of existence in contrast to the almost purely individualist ideal of Great Britain.

Mr. Wilson's chapter on Russia is far less satisfying. He begins by admitting that most Englishmen regret the alliance with Russia. He then proceeds to disperse their regrets by quotations from Mr. Stephen Graham and Mr. Maurice Baring as to the essential nobility of the Russian people. But this is the merest *petitio principii*; what Englishmen have in mind is not the Russian people, but the Russian Government. They admire as heartily as Mr. Wilson the Russia of Turgeneff and Tolstoy and Dostoevsky; it is the Government that drove out Kropotkin, that martyred Marie Spiridinoff, the Government to which Professor Vinogradoff refused to return on the ground of illiberalism, of which they feel ashamed. Those who know the history of the recent Adamovitch trial feel that Englishmen have the right to draw the distinction between rulers and subjects. To Mr. Wilson's question of whether Russia's need of political reform is any greater than the English need of social reform, we can only return an unhesitating affirmative.

Of the remaining chapters, that on the Foreign Office is a little stupid, because it gives no sort of answer to the questions we wish to have answered. The writer clearly speaks from inside knowledge, yet instead of telling us what he thinks of, for example, the recent Commission on the Civil Service, which reported specially on the Foreign Office, or of Mr. Brailsford's suggestion for the establishment of a committee similar to the Senate Committee on Foreign Affairs, he deals with generalities, like the need for the realization "by both statesmen and people that foreign policy is already in its essence a fundamentally democratic thing," which seems, to say the least, a curious statement when it is remembered that the League of Democratic Control, under men like Mr. Norman Angell and Mr. Charles Trevelyan, M. P., has been created to obtain what the writer urges is already in existence. Democratic things have a habit of being less mysterious than this inscrutable chapter.

In two long essays Mr. Seton-Watson, perhaps the highest authority on the subject, writes wisely of the problems of Austria-Hungary and the new map that is to be made. If the latter essay is a little incoherent, it is none the less extremely fascinating. Mr. Arthur Greenwood writes solidly and sensibly of the economic problems suggested by the war. Particularly interesting is his hint that the war is likely to give great impetus to "scientific management." He looks forward gloomily to heavy taxation and the retardation of new sup-

plies of capital; but the experience of France after 1870 in no way lends support to this view, since within ten years of the war Berlin was floating loans on the Paris money market. Finally, in a brief survey, Mr. Zimmermann opposes the ideal of an aggressive state-culture like that of modern Germany to the more spontaneous independence of England, adding that the only guarantee of future peace lies in the erection of a states-concert. In the evolving of this system lies the testing of democracy.

The volume has some good maps and useful bibliographies. Altogether it is a very valuable index to an important body of English opinion.

CHIEF JUSTICE MARSHALL.

The Political and Economic Doctrines of John Marshall, who for Thirty-four Years was Chief Justice of the United States. And also his Letters, Speeches, and Hitherto Unpublished and Uncollected Writings. By John Edward Oster. New York: The Neale Publishing Co. \$3 net.

From many points of view the publisher's announcement of this book is more interesting than the book itself. The letters here gathered, we are assured, show Marshall's "prejudice, his pride, his strength, and his weakness, and reveal Marshall as he has never been known before to anybody. Heretofore there has been very little known about the greatest of all the justices of the Anglo-Saxon peoples. . . . He is regarded as being shrewd alone. This, says Dr. Oster [the reviewer must confess not to have seen this statement of Dr. Oster!], is erroneous. . . . The reader of this volume will here discover for the first time that the great Chief Justice, in addition to being a seer of the law, was a very human creature with rare gifts. . . . The political and economic doctrines of Marshall for the first time may be fully understood, for now for the first time the master-builder of the American political structure is made known."

This amazing farrago of nonsense will not lack merit if it contributes something to the gaiety of nations; but it should perhaps be said that it does not even remotely describe the book of which Mr. Oster is the editor. It would have been a very fine thing indeed if a great body of new Marshall letters could have been found, a finer thing still if these letters, once found, had proved of high value in revealing the man Marshall as he has "never been known before to anybody." The fact is that there are gathered here about 140 letters, all told, of which not more than twenty-six, as far as the reviewer has been able to determine, are now printed for the first time. Certainly, these new letters are welcome, but it cannot be said that they are of great value, inasmuch as they add practically nothing to our knowledge of Marshall or of American history.

To collect all the letters of Marshall, printed and unprinted, and put them togeth-

er in a single volume, was nevertheless well worth doing; and it is a pity that Dr. Oster's management of that business should not have been more satisfactory. Instead of arranging the letters chronologically, he has arranged them according to the persons to whom they were addressed, so that the reader is continually skipping back and forth within the period from 1784 to 1834. Even the letters to a particular correspondent are not always arranged chronologically, although they are so for the most part. Of the letters to Judge Story, for example, the first four bear the dates 1826, 1833, 1834; with the fifth, however, we jump back to 1819, the reason being apparently that all but the first four were "first published by the Massachusetts Historical Society"; so that one is tempted to conclude that the editor printed the letters in the order in which he found them transcribed in his notebooks. Whatever the reason, the result is extremely unfortunate. And the bibliographical list at the close of the volume suffers from the same haphazard methods. There is, first, a "Bibliography" of seven pages, arranged alphabetically; next a "Supplemental" of three pages, not arranged, alphabetically or otherwise; this is followed by "Writings of John Marshall" and a second "Supplemental," neither of which is arranged alphabetically; last of all comes "Congressional Documents Relating to Marshall in France," a list of nine titles, where, happily, the editor returns to the alphabetical order.

In other matters Dr. Oster is a most exasperating editor. He nowhere makes it clear for us which letters have never before been printed, and the reader must be on his guard if he does not wish to be misled in this respect. A delightful vagueness and a casual air are not usually welcome in editorial comment. At page 52 Dr. Oster remarks: "The above five or six letters . . . are in the Manuscript Department of the Library of Congress. They were nearly all sent to Bushrod Washington. There are words, names, and addresses written on the backs of some of the letters, which, by the way, have never been published before." The italics are the reviewer's. It seems that Dr. Oster might have told us, without too much inconvenience, whether he means the above five letters or the above six. In fact, the number apparently cannot be more than five, and is possibly only four. Two of the five were written to Bushrod Washington, one to the Rev. R. R. Curley, one to Charles Carter, and one is without address. The very title of the book is misleading; for apart from a first perfunctory chapter of eight pages, the text is given over wholly to the letters, speeches, decisions, and a few miscellaneous writings of Marshall himself, with the minimum of necessary connecting comment by the editor. Dr. Oster is assuredly not one of those editors who err in the direction of a meticulous precision.

And what is the value of these letters, now that we have them all printed together, even if somewhat too much together? It is obvious that they cannot reveal the man Mar-

shall "as he has never been known before to anybody." But do they have even much share in revealing him as he has been known to everybody? The letters of great men are often enough disappointing, and it is so in the present case. We re-read these letters with the best desire in the world to have emerge from them a brand-new Chief Justice, with the mask off, divested of his judge's robe, sitting in slippered ease, engaged, perhaps, in some sinister intrigue against liberty and the just rights of humanity. Well, nothing comes of it. Here is, after all, only a plain upright man, of pronounced and inflexible convictions in politics and government, a man of strong personal likes and dislikes, a prejudiced and passionate man whose slumbering inner fires are well tended by a clean-cut, somewhat cold, and extraordinarily well-disciplined intelligence. Doubtless, Marshall was more than this, but you will not find it out from his letters, which are rather dull in form and mediocre in content. He was no great letter-writer. He had not an introspective talent, and one suspects that he rarely if ever took his sentiments and opinions out of their conventional settings to see what might be the substance of them if once subjected to a "perfectly free play of mind." "He possesses great subtlety of mind," Judge Story said of Marshall, "but it is only occasionally exhibited." Precisely so. You would never guess from the letters that he was a great man, or even a very interesting one. The quality of his intelligence stands revealed in the great decisions; as for the manner of man he was, his contemporaries have told us more than he himself ever did.

Notes

Houghton Mifflin Co. announces the forthcoming publication of the first volume of "The Diplomacy of the War of 1914," by Ellery C. Stowell, which will be entitled "The Beginnings of the War."

Harper & Bros. announce the beginning this month of their semi-annual publication for Australia. The titles of the volumes to be published during June are: "The Light of Western Stars," by Zane Grey; "Just Around the Corner," by Fannie Hurst; "The Great Mirage," by James L. Ford; "The New Clarion," by Will N. Harben; "Looking After Sandy," by Margaret Turnbull; "May Iverson's Career," by Elizabeth Jordan; "The Sound of Water," by Margarita Spalding Gerry; "The Copy-Cat," by Mary Wilkins Freeman. The same house announces that it will publish early this month "The Housekeeper's Handbook of Cleaning," by Sarah J. MacLeod.

The following forthcoming publications are announced by the Macmillan Co.: "Songs of Kabir," by Rabindranath Tagore; "The Japanese Problem in the United States," by H. A. Millis; "The Sorrows of Belgium," by Leonid Andreyev, translated by Herman Bernstein.

"Pieces of the Game," by Countess de Chambrun, and "Field Hospital and Flying Col-

umn," by Violetta Thurstan, will be published to-morrow by G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Frau Förster-Nietzsche's original "Leben Friedrich Nietzsches," in three parts, published in 1895, 1897, and 1904, extends to something above thirteen hundred pages. She has now rewritten and abridged this work for hastier readers, and has made this new form of her biography the occasion to answer many of the stories recently current about her brother, which she regards as scandalous. Simultaneously with the publication of this new work in the German, the Sturgis & Walton Company have brought out an English version, the first volume of which was prepared by Anthony M. Ludovici, and the second, just issued, by Paul V. Cohn. As these two volumes embrace together some eight hundred pages, it will be seen that Frau Förster-Nietzsche is generous, even in abridgment. As for the quality of the work, it is of the same character as the original. Those who care for an impartial account of the man and his career may be advised to consult the excellent work of Halévy; having thus oriented themselves they may find it profitable to see the *Macht*-philosopher through a haze of sisterly affection and enthusiastic, not to say rhapsodic, hero-worship. In this atmosphere the writer of "The Antichrist" is almost a Christian. He who lashed the moral standards of the age and sought to "transvaluate all values," stands forth as one who all his life "acted upon these values in unswerving fashion," and only criticised them because he was above them. Why, one asks after reading this book—why all the pother about Nietzsche, if he was merely a nice gentleman, going about the world in the spirit of Christian charity? That is not the philosopher whose creed is summed up admirably in these pregnant phrases:

Ascending life. Master-morality. Classical art.
Declining life. Christian morality. Decadent art.

The modern man has in himself both conflicting moralities: he is a physiological contradiction; he is "false," he squints.

Those phrases are quoted by Frau Förster-Nietzsche from a document owned by Peter Gast. And, indeed, the real value of her book, a value of which no time can deprive it, is in its documentary riches. Sometimes, as in the case just cited and in much of the other material bearing on the composition of his various books, these documents have epigrammatic or exegetical value for the student of Nietzsche's philosophy. At other times they throw light on his character, and indirectly on his philosophy. Thus, he writes to his sister in March, 1888, that is, before his mental breakdown:

At times I have no control over myself whatever; I am almost a prey to the most gloomy resolutions. . . . All this has resulted in a sensitiveness that is pitiful and altogether ridiculous; so that everything that reaches me from outside makes me ill, and the tiniest molehill becomes a mountain. . . . There's nothing ill about me except my soul.

The partisans of Nietzsche may say what they will, there is this morbid substratum in the man, and his excessive admiration of sheer strength is a mark of it. They may indeed retort: What of that? It is enough for us that he laid an unerring finger on one of the weak spots of modern life, and announced the catastrophe to come. "Our whole European

civilization," he said, "has for a long time been in an agony of tension, which increases from decade to decade, and seems to be heading straight for disaster."—What would Nietzsche, the praiser of war, think of the present war?

Prof. George M. Priest, of Princeton University, is the author of an admirably clear little book entitled "Germany Since 1740" (Ginn; \$1.25), which is primarily intended to furnish a background for the study of modern German literature, but which, in the absence of conveniently arranged English textbooks, can, and doubtless will, be used in courses in political history. The difficulty inherent in the task of telling the story of a land which is not a nation will be appreciated by all who have attempted to study the political history of Italy or Germany before unification. Germany, in 1740, consisted of 313 different states; even after the battle of Waterloo there were still 38 left. Professor Priest has succeeded in keeping the perspective open while he describes the successive elimination of most of the original states by conquest or peaceful absorption, and thus gradually clears the scene for the fundamental duel between Prussia and Austria. Concrete facts are not so multiplied as to obscure the workings of spiritual and economic forces. For example, stress is laid upon the influence of pietism and rationalism in moulding the thought of the eighteenth century, and hence in affecting German action in the War of Liberation. Proper attention is also called to such matters as the effect of the Continental System in arousing active resentment against Napoleon, and the influence of the Zollverein in securing the hegemony of Prussia among the German states. The last third of the book deals with the period since 1871. The Prussianization of the Empire and the development through proud consciousness of economic, industrial strength of a "will to power" are duly noted. The narrative is brought down to the declaration of war last August. It is the author's opinion that more undiscerning diplomacy can hardly be imagined than that of Germany in the summer of 1914. Nevertheless, though Germany precipitated the war, the ultimate blame does not lie with her alone. "Greed and jealousy, therefore, alliances and ententes, armaments and militarism, each and all are responsible for the collapse of civilization on the noblest continent of the globe." One correction may be suggested: the statement (p. 178) that in 1905 Germany had important commercial interests in Morocco hardly accords with the facts; moreover, the whole account of the first Moroccan crisis conveys the misleading impression that Germany scored a great moral and diplomatic victory. A selected bibliography of English books on German history is appended.

The indefatigable editors of the "First Folio Shakespeare" have gathered together from the pages of *Poet Lore*, and revised, their suggestions and questions for studying nine plays, under the title "Shakespeare Study Programs: The Tragedies" (Badger; \$1). Misses Porter and Clark are thus addressing the hundreds of Shakespeare clubs that adorn the hamlets and villages of every size in our broad land. But every inquiring reader in expert in dramatic analysis will find much suggestive material in these hundred and fifty pages. The consideration of each act makes the course of dramatic development clear and should reveal unsuspected significance in the

characters. In treating some plays that have been the field for critical battle, as "Hamlet" and notably "Macbeth," moot points are presented, extending even to the authorship of passages. A pedagogical professor might object that the form of the question frequently gives away what answer is, in the opinion of the editors, to be returned. But even he would welcome the full quotations from critics on both sides of these logomachies. Any reader who conscientiously follows out these varied suggestions for study cannot fail to read his Shakespeare more understandingly.

"The Lower Amazon," by Algot Lange (Putnam; \$2.50 net) is an interesting book on a little-known country by an untrained observer. The book was written at Pará, Brazil, and gives the daily happenings of canoe trips up the Tocantins, the Moju, and the Arary Rivers in the vicinity of that city, with observations on the natives encountered, and criticisms of the Brazilian climate, people, and commercial prospects. All unconsciously, with the lack of perspective which characterizes a narrative written on the spot, the author has outlined the conditions of life on the Moju, a typical tropical river. Taken as a whole, the reader finds the portrayal intensely dramatic. The narrow river, a cañon of vegetation winding through the jungle, presents, along its course, an epitome of human evolution. It leads from Brazilian civilization at its mouth, through the outposts of traders and caboclo rubber gatherers, to beyond the rapids, where live the primitive, naked Ararandewara Indians. The author's matter-of-fact account of these people leaves a vivid, personal memory. It is the delineation of such local conditions as are here presented that makes books of travel worth while, and the week which is spent with these savages is worth a volume of rambling ethnological generalizations.

Another well-written experience is the author's visit to Nazareth dos Patos, and here again we find the same ease in visualizing these poor caboclos or half-castes, their miserable lives and warm hospitality. "At the time of our visit, this town has twenty-eight inhabitants, of whom four suffer from chronic rheumatism, eight from old age and arteriosclerosis, one from hernia, one from erysipelas, and seven from chronic malaria. Bread, matches, and sugar are not obtainable at any price, yet four people gain a living making fireworks! The fireworks are used during local celebrations and religious occasions.

"Somewhat discouraging conditions these, for a town which, if placed in the United States under similar topographical conditions on a waterway almost twice as large as the Ohio River, surrounded by natural resources of a supreme order, would inevitably have developed into a bustling 'Cincinnati.' But this place remains a miserable, neglected hole containing a score of sickly people, lazy and disgusted with themselves, their country, and the God that made them." The scientific observations are negligible; indeed, the author's attitude towards nature is occasionally extremely objectionable, as in the account of the wilful slaughter of a great gathering of harmless anacondas, he and his party standing at a safe distance and firing volley after volley into the mass of serpents. His estimation of the dangerous character of these constrictors is exaggerated. His criticisms

on the people and the climate are well founded, and he vividly portrays the hindrance to progress and indeed even to decent living caused by the enormous, unreasonable import duties on all the necessities as well as the luxuries of life. His data will prove a real help to prospective travellers, whether tourists, explorers, or commercial agents, and the volume is of especial value just at the present time.

In "Christianity as Mystical Fact and the Mysteries of Antiquity" (Eng. tr. of third edition; Putnam; \$1.25) Rudolf Steiner undertakes to exhibit the whole of the higher religious thought of the ancient West as a product of mystical feeling. A mystic, according to the generally received definition, is one who claims to have immediate perception of the eternal and divine, independently of historical statements and ordinary logic—why argue for the existence of the sun when one sees it in the sky? Dr. Steiner takes as mystical all manifestations of belief that man has a spiritual nature and desires ethical union with the divine. For him Plato and his predecessors from Heraclitus down, Egyptian sages, Jesus (an initiate into the mysteries), and the author of the Fourth Gospel are mystics. He does not trouble himself to inquire into the origin and development of beliefs through reflection on nature and human life or through reliance on supposed divine revelations—it is enough that he himself discerns mystically the history of human thought. Unfettered by ordinary principles of exegesis he can interpret ancient writings in accordance with what he holds to be the higher truth—he proves his point by a free use of symbolism and imagination. Now it is obvious that the ancients had profound spiritual ideas, and that such ideas were embodied in the Dionysiac and Orphic mysteries. But it can do no good to refer such thought to a mysterious separate insight. All thought is mysterious, and all great thinkers stand above their fellows who are mysteries; but an arbitrary method of thought like Steiner's will open the door to uncontrolled fancies, and hinder a healthy growth of spirituality.

"The Heart of Blackstone" is the gushing title chosen by Nanette B. Paul for her handbook on the principles of the common law (The Abingdon Press; \$1 net). We are assured by the publishers that the author's purpose has been to present a treatise in "simple, living language that may appeal to the average person and create a new respect for law as such." Accordingly, she has discarded much of the substance and still more of the diction of Blackstone's "Commentaries." Her appeal is not to "the long and illustrious train of noble and ingenuous youth" referred to by Sir William in his famous inaugural lecture, but "to the hearts of young and old, men and women." The book is scrappy and didactic. No one would think of applying to it Chancellor Kent's eulogy upon Blackstone: "By the excellence of his arrangement, the variety of his learning, and the purity and the elegance of his style, he communicated to those subjects, which were harsh and forbidding in the pages of Coke, the attraction of a liberal science and the embellishments of polite literature." And yet, "The Heart of Blackstone" may prove attractive and helpful to many people. Judge Anderson, of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, commends it, in an introductory chapter. He

emphasizes especially "the author's rare power of condensation." Possibly this power has been over-indulged. The following extracts from the section on Bills and Notes are examples of condensation at the expense of accuracy: "Both bills of exchange and promissory notes are made assignable, and therefore negotiable, by making them payable to the order of the payee. . . . When a draft or note is made payable to order or bearer, the person having legal possession of the paper transfers the possession to another by signing his name on the back across the left end. This is called indorsing a note. . . . A private check, particularly for a small amount, should never be sent outside of the State or city in which the bank upon which it is drawn is situated." The volume closes with a long list of common-law maxims which the author calls "splendid" and believes will "arouse new reverence" in her readers. Her opinion of legal proverbs is quite opposed to that of Sir James Fitzjames Stephen, who jeers at them as "rather minims than maxims, for they give not a particularly great, but a particularly small, amount of information."

It is not unpleasant, after wading through much literary mud, to sit awhile with the "elderly bookman," who is, and yet is not, Sir James ("The Villa for Coelebs," by J. H. Yoxall; Dutton; \$2 net), as he philosophizes on the villa which he has "edified" over the way. To the villa come Coelebs and Marian, and many others—come and depart till the house-breakers, Time with his plough, its coulter a scythe, and Death, the sexton, "he who shoulders a foul pick and a slimy shovel," make what end they can. End, quotha? Nay, for if we understand Sir James aright, the villa has been there from the beginning and will continue for all time—a villa which no Pecksniff planned, and no Balbus builded, but from which the philosopher in his easy chair may soar in fancy, now to the tempting proximity of the weather vane, and anon to the empyrean. Between the steeple and the stars there is room enough for much spiritual aviation, and we sit and listen, irritated at times by inevitable *longueurs*, but thankful that we have escaped for the nonce from Nietzsche not only scratched but worn thin, and the clinical nightmares of certain contemporaries. There is no space in a note to accompany the author on even one of his many excursions.

A welcome reprint of the "Journal of the Joint Committee of Fifteen on Reconstruction," of which but one printed copy has hitherto been known, forms the occasion for Volume LXII of the Columbia University Studies in History, Economics and Public Law (Longmans, Green; \$3.50). The editor, Dr. Benjamin B. Kendrick, contributes an introduction in which the interesting history of the Journal is told, and adds a careful and extended study of the work of the Committee in framing the Fourteenth Amendment and the first Reconstruction Act of 1867. In opposition to many writers who have dealt with the period, Dr. Kendrick finds in the proposed Amendment, not a comprehensive scheme of reconstruction magnanimously offered to the South, nor an outline of policy beyond which the Republicans were willing to agree that they would not go; but rather a political device which it was believed the South could not effectually combat, and

which would insure, consequently, a Republican victory in the election of 1863. The volume is one of the most important of recent contributions to knowledge of this complicated period.

Something of the *opéra bouffe* part in the present war as played by German scholarship is discussed in Prof. C. Snouck Hargronje's "The Holy War: 'Made in Germany'" (Putnam; 75 cents net). This Dutch orientalist, professor of Arabic at Leyden and for some time councillor to the Dutch Colonial Office, succinctly exposes the somewhat ingenious efforts of Germany in her campaign of precipitating a *ihad* in the Mohammedan world, through the agency of her pseudo-Caliph catapaw in Constantinople. It is now evident that the picturesque and anomalous relation between the Kaiser and the Sultan, during the former's fervid pilgrimages to the near East, apart from a German commercial interest in Turkey, was a sentimental, academic attempt to consolidate the Moslem world with the Wilhelmstrasse. At Damascus in 1898, the Kaiser deposited a wreath on the grave of Saladin, and announced: "The three hundred million Mohammedans that are scattered through the world may rest assured that the German Emperor will eternally be their friend." The writer explains certain fundamental fallacies in the German policy of exploiting Moslem fanaticism. No laws are more rigidly observed than the Moslem, and no small part of the political and intellectual passivity of the Moslem races is due to this strict and literal observance, and to their disinclination to adapt or interpret these mediæval laws for modern needs. According to the strict Islamic doctrine, which, as is well known, is based upon divine authority, the Mohammedan attitude towards the adherents of other religions is irreconcilable; they are to be incorporated, in a spiritual sense, by the Faith. To further this aim the community of the faithful must carry on a *ihad*, or holy war, under the leadership of the Caliph, against those outside his authority. But the passing of the original Caliphate, and the disintegration of a unified Moslem world, have placed difficulties in the way of a supreme, central authority. Since then, as needs arose, the authority has been assumed or transferred to various territorial heads, and the original, first-century Moslem ideal of a world-conquest is deliquescent. Moreover, the Ottoman resuscitation and assumption of the defunct Caliphate was never recognized as traditional by the millions outside the Turkish empire.

This arrogation of central religious power by Turkey has been actively questioned, and the British, to suit their own ends, have wisely exposed the heterodoxy and substituted orthodox Indian-Moslem authority. Indeed, as an Indian publicist has already shown, the British *raj* in India is acknowledged by a larger number of Moslems than the aggregate total in fealty to the five Moslem rulers—the Sultans of Turkey, Morocco, and Zanzibar, the quondam Shah of Persia, and the Amir of Afghanistan. In Morocco local princes have often assumed the title of Caliph, while Mohammedan countries that arose simultaneously with the Ottoman Empire have never known or acknowledged a central religious authority. Dependent for his existence on non-Moslem nations, it is easy for the Turkish Sultan to assume the title of "Lieuten-

ant of God's Messenger, Supreme Commander of the Faithful," but impossible to enforce its recognition outside Ottoman influence. In short, as Professor Hargronje maintains, Pan-Islamism is hopeless as a vivifying propaganda unless it literally interprets the mediæval dogma of world-conquest under the Caliph, and, furthermore, Islamic law explicitly forbids a *ihad* against co-members of the Moslem community. The German professors, Grothe and Becker, formulated the view that the Kaiser was espousing the Moslem cause against those nations holding in thrall Moslem subjects, but they gave no thought to the two millions of African Moslems subject to Germany. Thus, the present fallacy of Turkey, with a *kafir* (unbeliever) Germany for ally, leading the Mohammedan world in a *ihad* against the rest of the *kafir* world, is only too evident to all thinking and orthodox Moslems. The failure of the edict from Constantinople is a matter of time, for the young Turks have long since robbed Moslem Turkey of a religious and fanatical unity. Besides, the Turkish campaign has already assumed a wholly secular phase. To add to the confusion, Professor Hargronje reminds us that the Sultan's manifesto of a *ihad* to the full three hundred million Moslem adherents included the two million German African subjects, and the Moslems under Austrian and Italian rule!

Science

THE INFLUENCE OF SEX.

Intermediate Types Among Primitive Folk: A Study in Social Evolution. By Edward Carpenter. New York: Mitchell Kennerley. \$2.

In the present volume, which may be described as a study of the influence of sex on the social progress of mankind, the author has brought together and extended a number of his earlier papers upon that class of inverted or perverted individuals that are described as "Intermediates." In the first part are four chapters dealing with the intermediate in the service of religion, as prophet or priest, as wizard or witch, as inventor of the arts and crafts, or even as one in a double sexual rôle, in the sense of combining the temperamental qualities of both men and women. The second and concluding section presents an interesting study of the intermediate as a warrior, and deals particularly with comrade-love, as displayed by the Dorian Greeks and the more modern Samurai of Japan, with a view of determining its relation to the status of women, to religion, and to civic life. A brief summary and index follow.

In place of wild hypothesis and sweeping conclusions, not to speak of the partial or total paralysis of the reasoning powers that have so frequently marked discussions of sex in the field of sociology, the present author has produced a sane and interesting work, which will not only afford the general reader much curious information, but place certain vexed social questions in a new and more satisfactory light. Mr. Carpenter

presents his thesis with the caution due to scientific inquiries, and though some of his conclusions may not be free from fallacy, they seem to be supported by a great variety of evidence.

We cannot enter into any of the details of the author's discussions of the social manifestation of sex, but will briefly summarize some of his conclusions. Properly speaking, there are only two sexual types in mankind: that of the normal man and that of the normal woman; but numerous variants of one sort or another are found, as when "the body may be perfectly feminine, while the mind and feelings are masculine," or the reverse, and these are here considered as "intermediate types." We shall not quarrel over the use of this phrase, though we do not consider that the variants referred to are natural types at all.

Since the Christian era, says the author, these intermediate men and women have often been persecuted, or only mildly tolerated, but that they have served a positive and useful function in society is an idea that has but recently received much attention. Sex-inversion, it is contended, is a widespread human tendency, that has formed the basis of the social life of all primitive peoples, and that has been fruitful in much that was good and noble, as well as evil and bestial. Homosexuality, or that condition in which the actual sex is disclaimed and the habits and occupations of the opposite sex are assumed, is found to have exerted great influence in religion, in warfare, and in the domestic arts; though ever close to the border line of vice, which is frequently crossed, it is nevertheless contended that it has served for the building up of human society in many directions. Thus the savage who renounces his birthright and throws away his spear, to assume the manners and duties of a woman, was in time accorded a certain degree of honor, for he was qualifying to become a wizard; later, perhaps, he might be invested with the odor of sanctity and be revered as a prophet or a priest.

Primitive religious ceremonials are thought to have been largely sexual or homosexual, and whenever new religious developments arose, the old rites, that were discarded, usually became associated with sorcery and the occult. "Early Christianity," says the author, "could never say enough against the Pagan cults of the Old World (partly for the very reason that it embodied so much of their ceremonial and was in many respects their lineal descendant). They were the work and inspiration of the devil. Their eucharists and baptismal rites and initiations—so strangely and diabolically similar to the Christian rites—were sheer black magic; their belief in the sacredness of sex mere filthiness."

The witch has been regarded as a degenerate priestess of a primitive and forgotten religious cult, dating from a time when tribal affairs were managed mainly by women, and when the chief deities were goddesses. They preserved their knowledge of

herbs and medicines, of spells and incantations, and every kind of lore handed down from an ancient past. The broom, the distaff, the cauldron, and the pitchfork—all symbols of the true witch—were the inventions of women, and at an earlier age may have had a religious significance.

For the normal primitive man, fighting and hunting were the rule, and for the normal woman, child-bearing, domestic service, and agriculture. The "feminine man," according to this doctrine, is thought to have taken to songs, to herbs, and to the observation of the stars, while the "masculine woman" developed the arts and crafts, was addicted to teaching, as well as to sorcery and divination. While sharing the protection of the tribe and enjoying greater leisure, these primitive homosexuals are thought to have laid the foundations of religion and science, of literature and of art. However suggestive the argument, it is difficult to understand how perverts from the normal type could have become such potent forces in the evolution of human society.

In the chapter on Hermaphroditism the author is no doubt right in believing that the presence of imperfectly developed individuals led to confused notions on this subject, and to an idealization of what was regarded as a true "double type," but what was in reality not a type at all. To speak of such defectives as intermediate types, in a biological sense, is quite inadmissible. In discussing the status of women the author remarks that "it is the Uranian classes of men, or those at least who are touched with the Uranian temperament, who chiefly support the woman's movement." This would imply that this temperament is excessively common in the Western States, and is spreading Eastward.

DEFECTIVE CHILDREN.

School Training of Defective Children. By Henry H. Goddard. New York: World Book Co. 75 cents.

Dr. Goddard is Director of the Department of Research of the Training School for Feeble-Minded Children at Vineland, N. J., and he writes, therefore, as a specialist in the subject discussed. The book is issued as one of the School Efficiency series edited by Professor Hanus, and is, in fact, merely an amplification of a report already made by the author upon the mentally defective children in the public schools of New York city. It is brief and clearly written and puts the problem with which it deals before the public in a forcible and simple fashion.

The average man is apt to confuse mere backwardness in learning with true mental deficiency. He can recall cases of backward children, from his own experience or from his reading, who have subsequently found themselves and developed into efficient men or women. But Dr. Goddard draws for us a sort of hopeless dead-line in regard to chil-

dren who are really defective, and asserts, on what seems to be good evidence, that such children are not few in number, but constitute a distressingly large proportion of our child-population. He estimates that among the school children of New York there are 15,000 who fall into this class. He states his belief, which seems to be that of other experts, that it is useless to attempt to educate these children by our ordinary method of instruction in the three R's. They have not intelligence enough to profit by such instruction, and there is no hope that through this kind of training they can acquire the brain-power of which they have been robbed by a defective inheritance. We must recognize the fact that they are human beings of a lower order, intellectually speaking. The best that can be done is to segregate them into special classes under qualified teachers, and by means of manual training to fit them, in part at least, to earn an independent living.

In detecting the condition of feeble-mindedness, Dr. Goddard relies largely upon the Binet-Simon measuring scale of intelligence. It may be said, perhaps, that the public is not yet wholly convinced of the finality of this test. Even though the validity of the principles involved be admitted, it is felt that in this, as in other modes of examination, there may be a large probable error, particularly if the examiner is inexperienced. Indeed, the tests are so simple that any self-confident enthusiast or charlatan might easily make a sad misuse of them. It is to be hoped, therefore, that in any other systematic surveys of school children that may be made the good example of this report may be followed to the extent of placing the work in the hands of skilled and experienced investigators.

"Keeping Fit," by Orison Swett Marden (T. Y. Crowell Co.; \$1.25 net), consists of a series of chatty chapters on What to Eat, Joy in Eating, Fatigue Poisons, What to Eat After Fifty, How Food Affects Character, Culinary Crimes, Overeating, Eating for Efficiency. Most Americans need some of the advice contained in this book; they would enjoy better health and live longer if they read and heeded its admonitions. Particular attention may be called to the reasons the author gives why we should eat more macaroni and corn products.

In "Wild Life Conservation in Theory and Practice," by William T. Hornaday (New Haven: Yale University Press; \$1.50 net), five lectures recently delivered by the author before the Yale Forestry School are republished in full. They treat of The Extinction and Preservation of Valuable Wild Life, The Economic Value of Our Birds, The Legitimate Use of Game Birds and Mammals, Animal Pests and Their National Treatment, and The Duty and Power of the Citizen in Wild Life Protection. A supplementary chapter by F. C. Walcott deals with Private Game Preserves as Factors in Conservation. It is encouraging to note that our universities are beginning to disseminate knowledge of this character, and that the value of the splendid work of Dr. Hornaday in this field is becoming recognized by the educational powers of the country.

Drama

"THE TROJAN WOMEN."

It is hardly necessary to point out that Mr. Granville Barker is not attempting to produce Greek plays exactly in the Greek manner. His productions are not for the purpose of edifying the archaeologist or providing an object lesson for the student of Greek literature, but of convincing the layman that it is as much worth his while to witness a presentation of a play of Euripides as of Shakespeare or—shall we say?—of George Bernard Shaw. That which is most notable in Mr. Barker's achievement is his success in reproducing some of the atmosphere of the Greek theatre and at the same time modifying the manner of the performance so that a modern audience shall not be repelled by its unfamiliarity. To cavil at Mr. Barker because he makes free with conventions which, it is a commonplace to notice, Euripides himself found irksome, would clearly be ridiculous. Indeed, while echoing the hope expressed by the writer in the *Nation* who reviewed the production of "Iphigenia in Tauris" in the Yale Bowl, that in colleges presentations of Greek plays in Greek—and, we may add, in as near an approach to the Greek manner as possible—may increase and multiply, we may also echo his criticism on that occasion of Mr. Barker's use of the *deus ex machina*. The only unimpressive part of the whole performance of "The Trojan Women" was the opening dialogue of Poseidon and Pallas Athena—two wooden images raised above the scene on either side, the lines being spoken through an opening in the scene. Mr. Barker would surely be well advised to cast conventions to the winds and have this opening scene played by living persons, either on the theologion or on the stage itself: in the latter case the entry of Hecuba could precede the appearance of the divinities.

In the stadia of colleges Mr. Barker has found a setting not ideal, but sufficiently well adapted to his purposes. The acoustics of the several stadia in which the performances will be given will naturally vary, but it is probable that the same general features that were noticeable in the new stadium of the College of the City of New York will characterize them all. There, so far as the present writer could ascertain by experiment and inquiry, the acoustics were perfect within a certain range in which the scene acted as a sounding board; outside that range it is doubtful if the words could be distinguished with perfect clarity. The defect of a stadium for these productions is that a distressing gap must be left between the ends of the back scene and of the seats on either side. Those whose seats are outside the range of perfect hearing will find it expedient to fortify themselves with copies of the text.

Mr. Barker is unquestionably wise in starting his experiment with Greek plays in America with the radical Euripides, whose dramatic use of the human emotions makes him nearer akin to Shakespeare and the whole school of romantic drama than to his own stately contemporary. And if Euripides is modern, his "Trojan Women" is not only modern but acutely timely. For "Trojan" the Athenian audience that first witnessed the play immediately read "Melian"—though they forbore to fine the author for his harrowing of their emotions. For "Melian" we

of to-day can read "Belgian," and recognize that no man of our time has portrayed for us the horrors of ruthless conquest with the poignancy of the Athenian dramatist. The keynote of the theme is struck at the very beginning by Poseldon:

How are ye blind
Ye treaders down of cities, ye that cast
Temples to desolation, and lay waste
Tombs, the untrodden sanctuaries where lie
The ancient dead; yourselves so soon to die!

And again in Cassandra's speech beginning:

Would ye be wise, ye Cities, fly from war!

Certainly in his insistence that to the conqueror war brings disaster no less than to the conquered Euripides is on the side of the Angels. And if it is partly through the chance of war that at this time he seems so extraordinarily timely, what of lines like

One night . . . ay, men have said it . . . mak-
eth fame

A woman in man's arms. . . ?

Ibsen or Shaw might have written thus.

From the first speech of Hecuba the interest of the audience of possibly some five thousand people was held throughout—a result due in large measure to the consummate skill with which the producer worked up to the climaxes of the play. The final scene, with great braziers sending forth columns of smoke, symbolizing the burning of the city, while Hecuba performs the last rites over the body of the slain Astyanax, was extraordinarily impressive. The scene in which the child is forced from the arms of Andromache and carried off by Greek soldiers to be cast from the walls of Troy was almost too poignant to be borne, and the intent of the dramatist, to relieve nerves strained to the breaking point, was fully carried out in the rendering of the exquisite chorus that follows. The management of the chorus throughout, indeed, deserves the highest praise. Their movements were rhythmical and intelligently ordered, without a too ambitious attempt at symbolism, and their voices, led by the beautiful Gregorian music composed by Prof. David Stanley Smith, of Yale University, were well together. Their costumes, which apparently were made deliberately unattractive, have provoked criticism, but at least they gave the requisite impression of mourning and contrasted well with the more brilliant habiliments of the actors.

On this score the magnificent costume worn by Miss Lillah McCarthy, as Hecuba, might also be criticised as being over-elaborate for the part of the aged queen bowed down by sorrow, and also as lacking in sufficient contrast with the bright garb of Helen. It was perhaps justified, however, by the splendid appearance made by Miss McCarthy, who used admirably her natural advantages to give to the eye a dignified and wholly satisfying picture. Miss McCarthy's enunciation of her lines was less satisfactory. She has not the grand manner that is essential for the delivery of such verse. Hecuba may be the type of grieving womanhood widowed by war the world over, but—apart altogether from the heroic tradition—the very greatness of her tragedy makes of her an heroic figure and demands a corresponding utterance. It is the particular quality of Euripides's "touch of all things common" that it raises them from the commonplace, and this is precisely what in some of her speeches Miss McCarthy failed to do.

Miss Chrystal Herne was an appealing and pathetic as well as a beautiful figure as Cas-

sandra, playing graciously and without exaggeration the part of the virgin prophetess. Her voice is naturally not strong, yet it was heard distinctly, and even when occasionally it seemed overstrained, the slight break served only to heighten the effect of the rôle. Of the entire cast the Andromache of Miss Edith Wynne Matthison deservedly stirred the most enthusiasm. Hers is the most pathetic rôle of all and contains some of the most beautiful lines of the play, and to these their full value was given by the rich, resonant tones, perfectly articulated, of Miss Wynne Matthison's delivery, and by the genuine human passion which she put into the part. Ian Maclaren, as Talthybius, and Philip Merivale, as Menelaus, were imposing figures and were clearly audible. The Helen of Miss Gladys Hanson embodied well the alluring charm of the character. A word must also be said for the fine delivery, under difficulties already alluded to, of their lines by Lionel Brahm and Miss Mary Forbes, the two divinites, as well as for the clear enunciation of the leader of the chorus, Miss Alma Kruger. The "Iphigenia in Tauris," which was presented in the stadium of the City College on Monday, was noticed in the *Nation* of May 20. S. W.

Art

THE FASCINATION OF SPIRALS.

The Curves of Life, Being an Account of Spiral Formations and their Application to Growth in Nature, to Science, and to Art, with Special Reference to the Manuscripts of Leonardo da Vinci. By Theodore Andrea Cook. With 11 plates and 415 illustrations. New York: Henry Holt & Co. \$5 net.

More than ten years ago Mr. Cook advanced the theory that Leonardo da Vinci was the architect of the famous spiral staircase at Blois. The study involved a survey of spiral formations in general, especially of such left-handed spirals as the staircase. It was suggested that the beautiful disposition of the handrail lines about the newel column was drawn from a rare sinistral type of the Mediterranean shell, *Voluta Vespertilio*.

Now Mr. Cook deals with the whole matter of spirals more completely. After preliminary definitions, he treats upright and flat spirals in shells. Here logarithmic curves prevail, finding their most perfect expression in the nautilus. The curves of the fossil ammonites are closer and unlogarithmic. The view is hazarded that the less expansive curves were less favorable to life and survival. An interesting demonstration is the casting of an Ionic volute by unwinding the tape with pencil attached from the fossil shell *fusus*.

The field of botany supplies much material in leaf arrangements, twists of stalks and trunks, spirals of tendrils, setting of seeds in such flowers as the sunflower. What is significant is the rarity of left-hand spirals of all sorts and the prevalence of logarithmic forms. Mr. Cook observes due caution in admitting the complete subjectivity of most

of these descriptions. Growth is not spiral, but generally purely radial. Hence the spirals we see are rather mnemonic terms than direct expression of the facts of growth. Most interesting are the spiral forms assumed by dead plant formations. This leads to an analysis of the structure of those winged spinning seeds of which the ash and maple are the more familiar examples. Mr. Cook carries the study of plant spirals to the germ cells and takes up by way of illustration other unicellular spirals.

A chapter on horns offers new and attractive classifications of paired upright spirals. The human body affords spirals in the cochlea, the blood vessels, the hip joint, and the twists of the arm and leg bones. We are surprised that Mr. Cook, in this connection, has not considered the beautiful and apparently logarithmic contours of the occiput.

Passing from nature to art, the author easily shows a preference for spiral forms from the days of neolithic man. This prepares the way for a study of spiral forms in Leonardo da Vinci's manuscripts. Not merely such forms in human anatomy and shells attracted him, but he made the most searching observations of the forms of cloud wrack and of running and falling water. A digression on right- and left-handedness might have been fortified by familiar examples from the baseball field.

A very elaborate study of spiral staircases leads us back to Blois. Mr. Cook has no difficulty in demonstrating the extreme refinements of this design. These are especially original, perhaps unique, in the gentle cyma curve of the front of each step. Mr. Cook's contention that this lovely design must be the creation of a left-handed person of genius, resident in France about 1517, deeply interested in spiral forms, familiar with the rare left-handed *Voluta Vespertilio*, has a certain cumulative force, but seems to us short of demonstration. At least, it remains a fascinating possibility.

All readers are likely to enjoy the descriptive part of the book. It is an extraordinary repertory of strange and interesting forms, and Mr. Cook's enthusiasm as a showmaster is accompanied by real caution. To his unusual task he brings distinction of mind and often genuine eloquence. Quite irrespective of the conclusions, which are so modestly stated as to appease the most skeptical, the book is excellent browsing ground, somewhat after the fashion of the informative parts of "Modern Painters."

In the mathematical part, Mr. Cook will leave most of his readers behind. Asserting a correlation between the logarithmic spiral and its radii and beauty in art and nature, he seeks a new arithmetical expression for fine proportion. The details have been worked out by a friend, Mr. Schoelling. The point of departure is the Fibonacci series, in which each term is supplied by adding the preceding two (e. g., 2-3-5-8-13). The ratios in this series vary slightly. Mr. Schoelling seeks to obtain an unvarying progression of Fibonacci type. His ideal factor is $\phi = 1.618+$. Upon this he builds up a

series with regular progressions which has all the Fibonacci properties, and may be obtained both by multiplication and by addition. A typical example follows (we read only to three decimals):

$$\begin{aligned}\phi^{-1} &= 0.618+ = -1+ \phi \\ \phi^0 &= 1. = 1 \\ \phi &= 1.618+ = 0+ \phi \\ \phi^2 &= 2.618+ = 1+ \phi \\ \phi^3 &= 4.236+ = 1+2\phi \\ \phi^4 &= 6.854+ = 2+3\phi\end{aligned}$$

It will be seen that the series is made up additively as a combination of a double Fibonacci series. Leaving to mathematicians the purely technical advantages of this progression, our task is merely to judge its application to artistic proportion. Mr. Cook offers a pair of clever scales by which the presence of ϕ ratios, whether linear or in area, may be detected. On trial he finds that the main ratios of Botticelli's Venus, of a model of acknowledged beauty, of Hals's Laughing Cavalier, and of Turner's Téméraire may be accurately expressed in terms of the ϕ progression. Mr. Cook is cautious enough to note that in a work of art we must expect not exact, but approximate, relations. The beauty, he feels, lies largely in such slight evasions of precise mathematical proportions. He does not seem to perceive that the Fibonacci series, with their constant slight aberration from a fixed ideal ratio, more nearly correspond to the facts of artistic proportion than does the ϕ series, with its fixed and unwavering progression. To which Mr. Cook would doubtless answer that he is merely proposing a scale, as much to ascertain divergences as conformities, and that a scale should be uniform. From this point of view the properties of ϕ seem to be valuable to the theorist in *Proportionslehre*, though we fancy the practical designer will continue to content himself with much rougher methods of measuring.

Finance

GERMANY'S REPLY AND THE FINANCIAL MARKETS.

It became known in the middle of last week, on the Stock Exchange as elsewhere, that the German Government's reply to President Wilson's note, regarding the Lusitania infamy and other exploits of German submarines, was about to be given out. From Berlin, the unofficial forecasts as to the nature of the German communication were such as to indicate a wholly unsatisfactory response. The only effect produced on the financial markets, during the two or three days intervening between the publication of these forecasts and the publication of the note from the German Foreign Office, was to bring the movement of prices to a halt. On the Stock Exchange, daily trading was smaller than at any time since the middle of last March, but there was no apprehensive fall in prices.

The text of the Berlin note was made

public during the double holiday. When business reopened on Wall Street, the whole community had been able to study the reply, to reflect upon its significance, and to weigh the comments made upon it by the press of the United States. The result was to confirm the previous week's expectations; to emphasize the feeling that the Government at Berlin was evading, shuffling, and pettifoggling in the matter, and to deepen the conviction that Germany's attempted explanations were such that a self-respecting government would be bound to dismiss with but scanty ceremony. Of all this, the immediate and the longer sequel remained as obscure to Wall Street as to the rest of the community. Yet the Stock Exchange, after a slight decline in prices and an immediate recovery, lapsed again into last week's inactivity; but it still held firm.

What the stock market will do, as the next crisis in the relations between Washington and Berlin approaches, is a matter of pure conjecture. But its action on the reception of the German answer serves at least to indicate two facts in the situation—one, that the investing public generally is not disposed to part with its holdings in panicky alarm, because of the clash with Germany; the other, that professional speculators were in no haste to sell with a view to lower prices—probably because of their feeling that a sharp reaction, thus occasioned, would attract the same powerful investment buying which appeared on the brief decline after President Wilson's note was published.

It is possible that these two facts meant that Wall Street did not look for severance of diplomatic relations with Berlin; or that it did not expect a state of war as a consequence of such action; or merely that funds available for investment were so abundant as to insure support to prices on any reaction to a more inviting level. But behind these possibilities there were several tangible certainties.

When the clash with Germany occurred, the presumption of Wall Street was of immediate setback in the slowly progressing revival of trade. Instead of this, the next few weeks were marked by the season's first definite indications of expanding business. Last Friday, in the face of the imminent publication of a possibly unfavorable reply from Germany, the chairman of the Steel Corporation declared that "the outlook for improvement in our lines of activity is better than it has been in more than a year." The vice-president of the largest independent steel producer added that "the turn has come," and that "we can expect prosperity in the immediate future rather than in the distant future."

Some other facts of the week added force to these predictions. The community had grown used to spectacular monthly "export balances"; but it was commonly believed that April had marked a decided slackening in that movement. Our large cotton shipments of the earlier months to Germany had been stopped by the blockade;

Europe seemed not to be buying grain so heavily as before; the preliminary weekly statements by the Government had foreshadowed an "April excess" of less than \$100,000,000. Last Wednesday, the complete April figures showed an export surplus of \$133,800,000. The preceding April gave an import balance of \$10,200,000; the largest previous April export balance in our history was the \$53,600,000 of 1913. Exports alone were \$132,000,000 greater than in 1914, whereas their increase in March was only \$111,000,000, and even in February only \$126,000,000.

But what attracted the most attention in this remarkable showing was the market's increasing knowledge that the \$500,000,000 or so of "war orders," known to have been placed for export from this country, played substantially no part in the April figures. Wall Street learned definitely, this week, that even the orders placed at the opening of 1915 have not yet resulted in delivery of the finished goods. That will really begin two or three months from now, and such exports will be throwing their full weight into the "export excess" at the very time when our crops are moving out to Europe.

What will be the result of such outward trade, so far as regards the rates for international exchange, is a question which bewilders the market as much as it does the ordinary reader of the figures. How it impresses Europe may be seen by the futile efforts of London to lift the dead weight from the sterling market—first by attempting to put up money rates on Lombard Street and then by releasing moderate sums of gold from the Bank of England's Ottawa reserve; with the very extraordinary culminating transaction, whereby London is to take over \$100,000,000 of the French Bank's gold and base the settlement with America on that.

This last phase of the situation bears a singular outward resemblance to last autumn's experiment of our own "\$100,000,000 gold pool." We were struggling then to meet this country's pressing indebtedness to Europe, and were cautiously releasing, under supervision of a committee, such sums of gold as should check the abnormal movement of European exchange against us. There is good reason for believing that Lombard Street's \$100,000,000 gold fund will be similarly managed.

Our own "gold pool" of last autumn had to send away only ten or twelve millions of its fund, before the whole international situation turned so dramatically in this country's favor. To-day, even Lombard Street is asking openly, in view of the known conditions of our trade with Europe, whether the greater part of the gold received from France may not have to be sent to the United States. Probably it will not. Such a movement, at a time when the reserves of our regional banks and private banks are fairly choked with gold, would be something like an economic absurdity. But of what the situation means to the

position of this country—financial, commercial, and industrial—no one can entertain any doubt.

In its more spectacular aspects, there is nothing in history which can exactly match it. In the Napoleonic wars, our merchants captured the trade between other American ports and Europe. Last summer, we pictured ourselves as capturing the trade with neutral nations. What is actually happening is wholly unlike either of those achievements. It somewhat resembles England's own financial and commercial achievements in the first fifteen years of the nineteenth century, but with the important difference that, unlike the England of 1800 to 1815, the United States of to-day is not itself at war, has not a depreciated currency, and is in a perfectly sound industrial position.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

FICTION.

Bradley, M. H. *The Splendid Chance*. Appleton. \$1.30 net.

Carleton, W. *The Red Geranium*. Small, Maynard & Co. \$1.35 net.
Hallet, R. M. *The Lady Aft*. Small, Maynard & Co. \$1.35 net.
Kauffman, R. W. *Jim. Moffat, Yard*. \$1.35 net.
Locke, W. L. *Jaffery, Lane*. \$1.35 net.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Bergholt, E. *A New Book of Patience Games*. Dutton. 50 cents net.
Cassi, G. *Il Mare Adriatico*. Milano, Italy: Ulrico Hoepli.
Durham, W. H. *Critical Essays of the 18th Century*. Yale University Press. \$1.75 net.
Handel-Mazzetti, E. von. *Stephana Schwertner*. New York: G. E. Stechert & Co.
Page, W. K. *The Preparation and Care of Mailing Lists*. Chicago: Addressograph Co.
Ponti, E. *La Guerra del Popolo e la Futura Confederazione Europea*. Milano, Italy: Ulrico Hoepli.
Rogers, E. *Sebago-Wohelo Camp Fire Girls*. Battle Creek, Mich.: Good Health Pub. Co.
Whither? Anonymous. *Houghton Mifflin*. 50 cents net.

GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS.

Kirkaldy, A. W., and Evans, A. D. *The History and Economics of Transport*. London: Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons. 7s. 6d. net.

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

Austin, J. O. *American Author's Ancestry*. Privately printed. \$6 net.

Choate, J. H., and Others. *Sixty American Opinions on the War*. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 1s. net.
Firkins, O. W. *Ralph Waldo Emerson*. Houghton Mifflin. \$1.75 net.
Fleets of the World. 1915. Philadelphia: Lippincott. \$2.50 net.
Hubback, J. *Russian Realities*. Lane. \$1.50 net.
Hutton, E. *Naples and Southern Italy*. Macmillan. \$2 net.
Lee's Dispatches. From private collection of Wymberley Jones de Renne. Edited by D. S. Freeman. Putnam.
Walker, J. B. *America Fallen*. Dodd, Mead.

TRAVEL.

Hirst, W. A. *A Guide to South America*. Macmillan. \$1.75 net.

SCIENCE.

Armor Plate Vaults. South Bethlehem, Pa.: Bethlehem Steel Co.
Brackett, C. A. *The Care of the Teeth*. Cambridge University Press.
Coutts, F. *Ventures in Thought*. Lane. \$1.25 net.
Hall, S. R. *Writing an Advertisement*. Houghton Mifflin. \$1 net.
Hill, G. F. *The Development of Arabic Numerals in Europe*. Oxford University Press. 7s. 6d. net.
Pyle, W. L. *A Manual of Personal Hygiene*. Sixth edition. Philadelphia: Saunders. \$1.50 net.

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